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ABSTRACT

The volume, based on workshop proceedings, discusses identifying characteristics of various handicapping conditions and describes relevant teaching methods and curricula. Characteristic behaviors of aggressive and withdrawn emotionally disturbed children are specified. Discussions of mentally handicapped children center on problems of identification, teacher characteristics, curriculum, behavior modification, elimination of maladaptive behavior, referrals, screening, perception, personal and social competencies, vocational education and cooperative agencies. Examined are learning disabilities related to auditory and visual reception, auditory and visual association, manual expression, auditory and visual closure, and auditory and visual sequential memory. Also treated are the educational history, sociological influences, identification, testing, teacher characteristics, and enrichment of gifted individuals. The education of bilingual children is considered in relation to historical background, development of language skills, the Title VII Program, the Head Start Program, Indian children, migrant children, and the record transfer system. Speakers, films, and class trips of the workshop program are listed. (GW)

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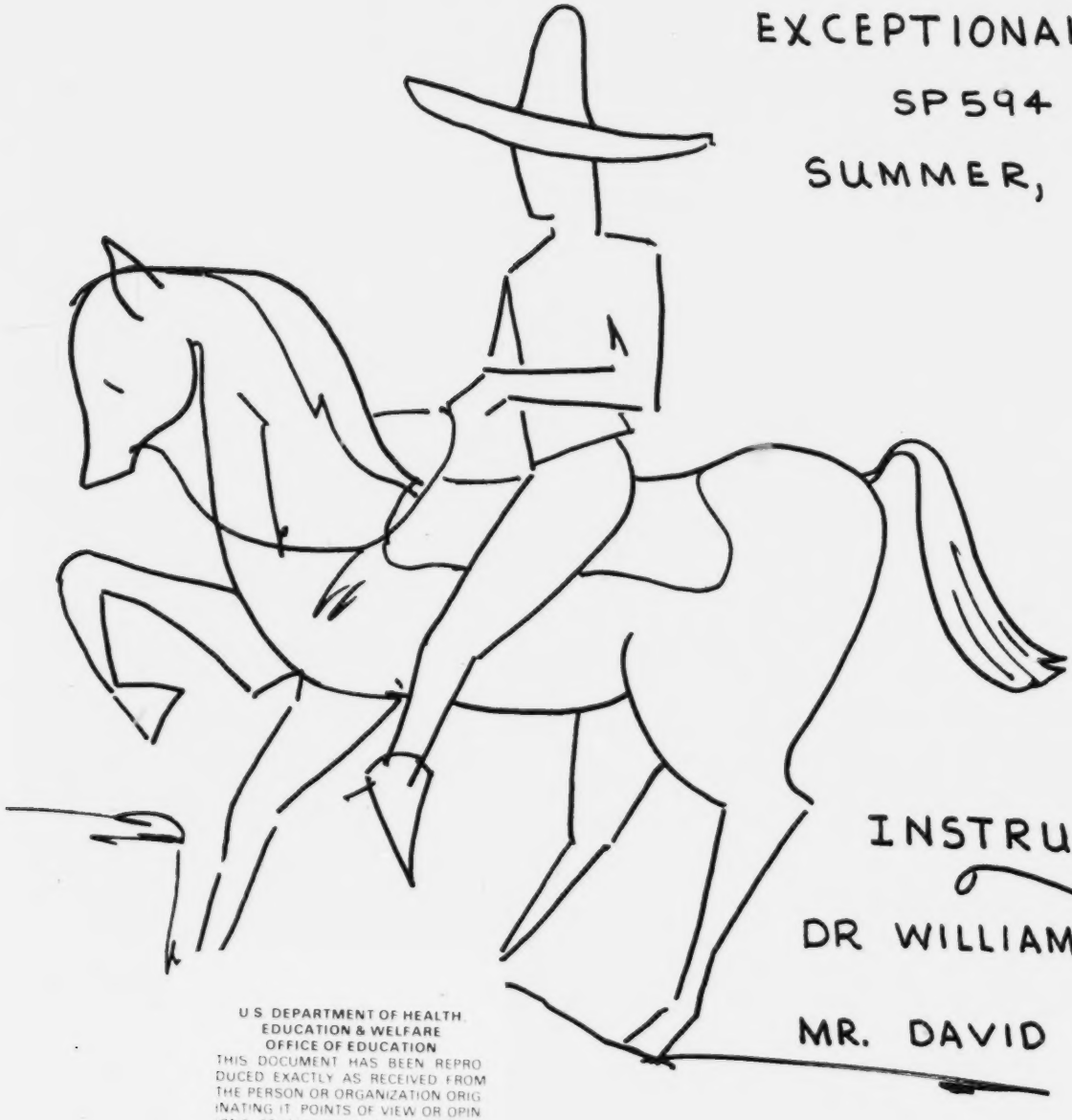
ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY TEMPE, ARIZONA

WORKSHOP IN THE EDUCATION OF THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD

SP 594

SUMMER, 1972



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DEDICATION

The 1972 syllabus, "Si Se Puede", is dedicated to Mrs. V'esser McDonald in appreciation for her complete dedication given so generously to the education of handicapped children.

Throughout the nineteen years of the workshop for the Education of Exceptional Children Mrs. McDonald has been a valuable contributer as a guest speaker. Many professional teachers attending the workshop during these years have made commitments to implement many of Mrs. McDonald's innovative methods and techniques of instructing handicapped children, consequently the impact of her instructional programs are represented throughout the entire Southwest.

For this Mrs. McDonald, our dedication and sincere thanks.

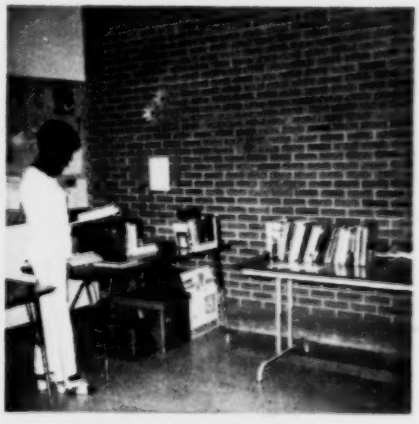
FORWARD

Educating the exceptional child is an intricate social and economic problem, which even the best trained professional workers cannot fully ratify. Providing specialized programs for exceptional children is one of the most critical needs of our aducative system today.

For centuries people have made efforts to define and classify the areas of exceptionality. An eighteenth-century French psychiatrist, Esquirol, first inferred the conditions of mental retardation. Evidence as far back as the pre-Christian era indicated the concern about retarded individuals. As legislation changes to fulfill the needs of American citizens, definitions and classifications of exceptional children change to benefit and provide for educational opportunities.

Continuous research in the area of exceptionality implies successful methods and theories that can enhance the educational experiences of exceptional children to develop their full potential. Many times the classroom teacher does not have ready access to the recent research in these areas, and as a result may not be sophisticated in the current theory and methods of exceptional education. However, teachers, as practitioners, must recognize each student as a human being and exhibit prevenance for these individuals. All human beings possess divergent needs, multifarious strengths, and surmountable weaknesses. To surmount the weaknesses a child explicits, teachers must apply the instructional theory of structuring the desired learning behavior.to the child's strengths to overcome the weakenesses.

Our commitment is to teach children the achievement at their functional level (3rd, 4th, 5th, grades etc.) not to teach 3rd grade, 4th grade, 5th grade, etc. With the knowledge we have consumed from the summer of "72" workshop we are transposing the knowledge to wisdom by saying "Si Se Puede".



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Also to the syllabus committe for their leadership, efforts, and time in writing and compiling the book. Especially Kirsten Shields, coordinator of publications, Mary Stack, syllabus editor, and Bob Anderson, syllabus chairman, for their many hours of devotion beyond the call of duty.

Our gratitude is extended to the many fine speakers and the agencies that provided for class and group visitations. Their knowledge, wisdom, and experiences have enhanced our commitments to say, "Si Se Puede".

We gratefully acknowledge the efforts of the many members of the various committees that have freely aided to make the workshop and syllabus extremely successful. Special consideration to our photographer, Marie Spanos and artists Norene Lendriet and Jane Deering for making expressions worth a thousand words.

Suzanne Groves spent many hours proofing and typing the final manuscript. A sincere and earnest acknowledgement is extended to her for the exhibited dedication in producing the syllabus.

1972 Syllabus Committee

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EMOTIONALLY HANDICAPPED

What Can We Do About It?

THE EMOTIONALLY HANDICAPPED CHILD

INTRODUCTION

The emotionally handicapped child in the classroom can be identified by one of several patterns. A very broad, general grouping could be: the agressive child, the over-anxious child, and the withdrawn child. All have certain characteristics in common, such as:

1. An inability to learn which cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors.
2. An inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers.
3. Inappropriate types of behavior or feeling under normal conditions.
4. A general, pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.
5. A tendency to develop physical symptoms, pains, or fears associated with personal or school problems (Bettelheim, 1969).

They all lack order, organization, and structure in their daily life. If they are to be helped they will need to have provided for them a behavioral pattern both at home and school which will support the child as he acquires new and efficient behavior (Whelan, 1966).

Dupont (1969) lists concepts that are important for all emotionally handicapped children:

1. Life is to be lived, now !
2. Time is an ally.
3. Trust is essential.
4. Competence makes a difference.
5. Symptoms can and should be controlled.
6. Cognitive control can be taught.
7. Feelings should be nurtured.
8. Delay does not always lead to loss.
9. Impulsiveness does not always lead to a gain.

THE AGGRESSIVE CHILD

In the classroom, aggressive behavior causes more concern to teachers than any other type of deviant conduct (Blackham, 1967). It is disruptive to the learning process, threatens the teacher's group control, and requires immediate counter action.

Psychiatric schools of thought offer two basic premises for the origin of aggression. Some propose that man's aggression is not natural, but is a learned activity, constantly reinforced by rewards in today's materialistic societies (Stoor, 1952). A later study by Stoor (1968) expounds the theory that dependency and aggression are closely related. A child must assert an aggressive drive toward indenpendence to become a useful self-reliant adult. Others feel aggression is a basic force inherent in man and necessary for human survival (Berkowitz and Rothman, 1960).

The discerning teacher will be careful to distinguish between behavioral maladjustments and acceptable aggressive behavior. Positive aggression is socially useful. Negative aggression is hostile, unacceptable conduct in direct defiance of authority and social controls. Natural aggressiveness will be exhibited during the child's search for independence. However, negative aggressiveness often results in self-destructive activities or in distorted emotions such as jealousy and hate (Berkowitz and Rothman, 1960).

Authors of various studies suggest many causes of maladaptive aggressive behavior. Faulk (1970) suggests unhappiness in the home, mild physical handicaps, excessive pressure by parents and teachers, and inappropriate grouping by the classroom teachers as possible causes. Phillips (1960) and Blackham (1967) feel over-permissive parents and teachers are often at fault. Cultural background can also influence aggressive behavior.

In general, it may be stated that aggression arises in children when they feel deprived of affection, subjected to standards beyond their physical, mental, and emotional maturity or are subjects of severe and harsh childrearing measures.

If effective learning is to proceed the teacher must have the ability to manage behavior problems, attitudes, and emotional crises. Principles such as controlled extraneous stimuli, reduced social activities, an ordered presentation of the materials to be learned are basic to the very structured environment necessary for the aggressive child.

Tedl and Wineman (1957) discuss techniques of behavior modification. They note their interference techniques are secondary to establishing a good relationship with the student. They suggest planned ignoring of specific situations, giving the child a verbal signal when his behavior is unacceptable, being interested and involved in the child's experiences, using a little extra affection at times of stress, being able to see the funny side of a situation, regrouping the class when necessary, changing to a new activity, and removing the child from the scene of conflict until he can regain his composure. If a child completely loses control it may be necessary to physically restrain him until some degree of composure has been regained. During a mild loss of composure the presence or touch of a calm composed adult may be all that is necessary to calm the child. When complete loss of control occurs the composure of the adult handling the child is extremely important.

Dupont (1969) suggests a similar approach to handling aggressive children. He also lists hints which the teacher of the aggressive child should always keep in mind. The teacher should always remain stable and orderly, learn to expect the unexpected, expect and accept little progress in the beginning, learn to attend to and interpret nonverbal communication, and constantly re-examine the activities in the classroom for their value.

Over anxiety is an emotion evoked by imagined and obscure dangers (Hill, 1965). It is often seen when there has been a serious illness or death among the siblings or other members of the family or among the children of friends. It is frequent in families with an only child upon whom all the hopes and desires of the parents are concentrated. When the parents are incompatible, the maternal interest may be centered entirely on the child, and this is intensified if the mother lacks interests outside the home.

Over-anxiety is usually associated with overaffection, overprotection, and overindulgence, but it may occur without these. It often occurs when there is a rejecting parent or when the parents limit the child's activities because of parental fear of disease and accident. The child generally responds to parental over-anxiety with timidity, fearfulness, shyness, and cowardice. Since he has not been allowed to meet situations alone, he becomes dependent on his parents for directions and decisions. He is apt to become apprehensive and over anxious about his health.

Anxiety appears in many forms and is expressed overtly in a number of ways. The most common manifestations are an inability to concentrate, restless or hyperactive behavior, tremors, nail-biting, speech disorders, and crying for no apparent reason. In its more severe forms, anxiety may be expressed by chronic apprehension or extreme sensitivity and reaction to slight changes in the environment. The more tension or anxiety indicators the child presents, the more evidence we have of his maladjustment.

Whenever a person's basic psychological needs are insufficiently gratified, or he experiences a serious threat to his self-system or to his survival, the inevitable result is anxiety. To help the child that has felt this threat requires patience, kindness, acceptance, empathy, and love. The teacher may need to seek aid of other school personnel, the parents, the family doctor, and the therapist.

The child can be assisted in modifying his behavior by experiencing an accepting, predictable, and safe relationship with a helping person. He tends to move in the direction of a more healthy adjustment when he is permitted the opportunity to express his feelings and concerns without censure or disapproval. He needs help to foster a healthy self-identification and to learn to deal with his environment more adequately. As his environment is made more rewarding and his basic needs are satisfied, the child's behavior will become more appropriate.

Hill (1965) has provided several specific things that can be useful to the classroom teacher:

1. If the child comes to school upset and wants to talk about his problem he should, but he should not be allowed to dwell on the subject.

2. The nail-biter and thumb-sucker will respond better to a new and interesting activity that requires both hands than to a reprimand.

3. If the child is apprehensive because he is not sure how adults will react to any given situation, the teacher should examine her approach to the child and also discuss the situation with the parents.

4. The child needs help in understanding what is behind his feeling of anxiety.

5. Provide the child with a variety of interesting and relaxing activities. Children often need to be taught how to relax.

6. A child absent from school for a long period of time should be reassured and plans should be made with him to extend his make-up work over a comfortable period of time.

7. Play down the importance of tests and emphasize the need for being able to understand and use what is learned.

8. If the child is a new student or if a new process is being introduced, there should be plenty of time allowed to be sure each child understands each step of the work to his satisfaction.

THE WITHDRAWN CHILD

Children react to threatening situations in many different ways. A withdrawn child is repressing his fantasies, whereas an aggressive child is acting out his (Buxbaum, 1971).

Faas (1970) lists seven examples of behavior the teacher may observe in a withdrawn child:

1. The child will be overly sensitive and cry quite frequently.

2. He may day dream frequently, preferring this over other activities involving his peers.

3. He tries extremely hard to please.

4. He may become easily frightened having rather unusual fears.

5. These children are overly selfish.

6. Many times he will make up stories to enhance his position within the peer group.

7. He is over-complacant which often makes him the target of the aggressive child.

The conformist in the classroom may be an ideal student but is often seriously in need of help. He takes pride in being just average. He seldom tries anything he feels will result in failure. As they mature these children become less and less creative. They often develop shallow superficial personalities and have grave difficulty in making critical decisions for themselves.

Because the regular social nature of the classroom is upsetting to the withdrawn child, he will often withdraw to find security and safety. This does not mean that every child that day dreams or is withdrawn at times is seriously handicapped. Those children that continue this behavior daily should be checked and therapy used as needed.

Many authors note that the withdrawn child's world is in chaos. He needs a strongly structured classroom situation. However, rigidity and inflexibility can not be tolerated (Ruben, 1966, and Bettelheim, 1950). Group therapy is often chosen as the best method to help these children relate to their peers and surroundings. Competitive situations and situations that draw class attention to the child should be avoided. Both can be very painful to the withdrawn child.

Faas (1970) provides a list of aids for the teacher of the withdrawn child:

1. Provide an ego support through direct, legitimate praise, recognition, some responsibility, and asking for suggestions and advice.

2. Manipulating his environment to encourage contact with his peers.

3. Weening the child away from his withdrawal and toward more participation.

4. Helping the child to understand the need for participation and sharing.

5. By setting a pattern of relaxed calmness within the classroom.

6. Providing a good example of acceptance and communication with the withdrawn child.

7. By setting the child's standards of achievement within his capabilities and keeping him challenged.

8. Keeping communication lines open with the child's parents.

The teacher should not feel she is alone in helping the child. Equal responsibility should be taken by the teacher, the therapist, and the parents. The child is a twenty-four hour person and needs love and attention all twenty-four hours. However, it has been noted by many authors that emotionally handicapped children frequently have emotionally handicapped parent or parents.

THE BEHAVIOR MOD SQUAD

TRAINABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED

WHO IS THE TRAINABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED?

According to the American Association of Mental Deficiency, a mentally handicapped person is a person who has intelligence minus one standard deviation from the norm and who is also slow in adaptive behavior. This means that one with an IQ of 80 to 85 or below with a lower than average ability to learn to adapt to environment would be included in the mentally handicapped area. Three general categories of mentally handicapped individuals are listed by Baumgartner and Lynch in Administering Classes for the Retarded. 1. The educable mentally handicapped with an intellectual functioning of approximately one-half to three-fourth the rate of speed of the normal. 2. The trainable mentally handicapped with an intellectual functioning of approximately one-fourth to one-half the rate of speed of the normal child. 3. The profoundly handicapped who is totally dependent and functions too low intellectually for placement in public school. This section will deal with the trainable mentally handicapped.

A trainable mentally handicapped child is one whose IQ is between 30 and 55. He can be trained to care for his personal needs, to adjust to basic socialization, and to provide some economic self-support. Although a trainable mentally handicapped child may require supervision either in a sheltered or partially sheltered environment all his life, the possibilities for his growth are impossible to pinpoint. Often a skillful teacher is able to discover unexpected strengths in a trainable mentally handicapped child.

Baumgartner and Lynch indicate that most states have certain regulations which determine whether or not a trainable mentally handicapped child can be placed in a public school. These regulations include the following basic skills which a child must have in order to enter school: 1. The child must be toilet-trained. 2. He must be able to make his needs known. 3. He must be of no physical danger to himself or others. 4. He must be able to profit from instruction. 5. He must be ambulatory. Some schools will admit children with one or more of these requirements not met.

TEACHERS OF THE TRAINABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED

Arizona requires Arizona Certification and a Special Education Certificate before a teacher can teach in a trainable mentally handicapped classroom. In addition to meeting state requirements, the teacher of a trainable mentally handicapped child needs certain personal characteristics in order to meet with success. Among some listed by Baumgartner and Lynch are the following: The teacher of trainable mentally handicapped finds hope for each child, has the desire to work with the mentally handicapped, has respect and understanding of the mentally handicapped, has a child development approach rather than placing all emphasis on academic achievement and knows how to identify and eliminate problems of the multiply-handicapped child.

CURRICULUM

The curriculum for the trainable retarded child is directed towards making him an adjusted person, socially accepted at home, in the community, caring for himself, using his free time constructively, being economically useful when needed, and working in sheltered workshops or residential settings.

This curriculum should provide the trainable mentally retarded with a variety of experiences that will fit his individual needs. These needs may range from the basic attending behavior and motor skills to the more advanced occupational skills. The trainable mentally retarded must be trained in all areas so that he may fully develop and become a useful person even though he will always be dependent or semi-dependent upon others.

The broad objectives for the trainable mentally retarded are: (1) self-help, (2) socialization, and (3) oral communication. Under these objectives typical subject areas may be (1) self-help skills, (2) intellectual development, (3) oral language development, (4) social adjustment and development, (5) motor and sense training, (6) occupational skills and (7) leisure-time activities.

Most of the objectives set for the trainable mentally retarded are not achieved "over night." One simple self-help skill may take weeks for him to learn. So when planning a curriculum for a trainable mentally retarded don't expect to have your objectives met in a certain amount of time, it may take more or it may take less. Be patient with him he needs all the love, kindness, and understanding you can give him.

Several of the school districts have Special Education Classes in the Phoenix and surrounding areas. They are divided for Trainable and for the Educable:

Private

MARC School for the Retarded 525 S. Wilbur Mesa
Arizona Pre School 6306 N. 7th St.
Tempe Center for the Retarded 815 E. Tyler Tempe (Wayne Ritter School)
Valley of the Sun 31st Ave & McDowell Rd.
Arizona Foundation for the Handicapped 3146 E. Windsor (Perry)
Upward Foundation & Industries 1 E. Madison - adults
Garden Park School 8145 N. 27th Ave.

Public

Roosevelt District 6000 S. 7th St.
Alhambra Elementry 3001 W. Hazelwood
Balsz 4309 E. Bellview
Avon dale
Cartwright 3401 N. 67th Ave.
Chandler Elementry
Creighton 2702 E. Flower
Dysart-Peoria
Gilbert - Gilbert
Glendale Elementry Also Glendale Union High
Isaac Elementry 1701 N. 35th Ave.
Laveen
Litchfield
Madison Elementry 5601 N. 16th St.
Mesa Elementry 39 S. Hilbert Also Mesa High School
Murphy 2625 Buckeye
Osborn 1226 W. Osborn
Paradise Valley 3012 E. Greenway
Phoenix Elementary 125 E. Lincoln St.
Scottsdale 3811 N. 44th St.
Tempe Elementry Also Tempe High School
Washington Elementry 8610 N. 19th Ave.
Williams Air Force Base
Wilson Elementry 2411 E. Buckeye

BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION FOR THE TRAINABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED

(Excerpts from a report from Fairview State Hospital)

Some questions most frequently asked regarding Behavior Modification.

1. What is Behavior Modification? A number of techniques, all based on the principles of learning which are effective in changing the behavior of others in some specifiable, observable and predicatble way.

2. What are the steps in modifying behavior? There are four basic steps:

   (a) First you identify specifically the problem behavior that you wish to modify or the behavior deficit that exists. At the same time you set up the target behavior. Target behavior refers to the behavior you wish to take the place of the problem behavior or to correct the behavioral deficit.

   (b) Second, you find how often and under what conditions that particular behavior occurs now, and keep recording during treatment. Behavior is any act of an organism that can be seen, heard or felt and thus recorded.

   (c) Third, you arrange a change. If you want a behavior to repeat and grow stronger, you follow it with a rewarding consequence (a positive reinforcer). If you do not want a behavior to repeat or grow you make sure that that particular behavior is not reinforced and teach another behavior to replace it.

(d) Fourth, if after a period, you do not get the change you wish, you must check your program. The most common causes of poor results are not having the correct reinforcer to teach a new behavior or not removing the consequence which is reinforcing the problem behavior. Also, check to see if your directions are clear, is the environment structured correctly, and are your training steps small enough. Most important, have you given the program adequate time?

3. What does a reinforcer do? A reinforcer (both positive and negative) increases the probability of the behavior that precedes it.

4. What about behavior you do not wish increased? You do not reinforce it. It is important to observe the behavior and what follows it most carefully to find the reinforcer. Very often attention of any kind serves to reinforce behavior you do not want. So you must ignore so that the behavior does not increase. Ignoring includes not touching more than necessary, not talking to and not looking at the child.

5. How soon can you expect a behavior to stop when you ignore it? It varies, and there may be a short period when it gets more frequent and other behaviors that you consider more objectionable may occur briefly but be sure to keep on. When you are extinguishing a behavior it is vital that you teach an incompatible behavior at the same time.

6. What is meant by reinforcing an incompatible behavior? You reinforce a desirable behavior which cannot exist with the undesirable behavior. Examples: A child cannot scream and talk at the same time or walk and run or destroy and build or hit and help. We then focus on training in that incompatible behavior. An incompatible behavior to thumb sucking would be singing, verbalizing or working with hands--since one cannot suck on his thumb and do the other at the same time.

7. What are the different types of positive reinforcers used most frequently?

   (a) Edibles (food and drink)
   (b) Manipulatibles (toys, jewelry, etc.)
   (c) Visual, tactile, olfactory, auditory stimuli (pictures, clay, perfume, music, etc.)
   (d) Social reinforcers - attention, praise, etc.
   (e) Conditioned generalized reinforcers - money, tokens, stars, etc.

8. How often do you give a reinforcer? Continuously (immediately after each time the behavior occurs) until the behavior is learned, then gradually space out the reinforcer until you are giving it intermittently.

9. Why is it important to go to an intermittent schedule of reinforcement? Research has clearly shown that to teach a skill, you must reinforce the behavior each time. If you stop reinforcing, the behavior will also stop. If you gradually space out the reinforcer or give at irregular time intervals the behavior will maintain for long periods with only occasional reinforcement.

10. What is meant by negative reinforcement? To have negative reinforcement an adversive stimulus must be present. The response that terminates that adversive stimulus is negatively reinforced and therefore the possibility of it being repeated is increased. Examples:

    (a) A bright light is shining in your eyes. You turn the lamp away, which makes you more comfortable. The bright light is the adversive stimulus, the turning of the lamp is the behavior that terminated the adversive stimulus. That action - the turning of the light - has been negatively reinforced.

    (b) A boy talking in class is an adversive stimulus to the teacher. She yells, "Be quiet, Jimmy!" He becomes quiet, and the response of yelling has been negatively reinforced. Jimmy received attention for talking, which may strengthen talking behavior.

11. Why not use punishment (physical or verbal)? Such punishment suppresses behavior and is a negative reinforcer. As it is usually administered, this punishment will not permanently eliminate a behavior although, for a time, it may reduce the frequency. Also it is important to realize that the attention accompanying the punishment is often a powerful positive reinforcer.

12. What can be used instead of punishment to control behavior? Withdrawing a positive reinforcer (e.g. ignoring attention getting behavior) or reinforcing an imcompatible behavior.

13. How does Behavior Modification differ from the usual ways society responds to problem behaviors? Behavior modification sees problem behaviors as faulty learning and a remedial program is set up to teach more adaptable behavior. Society usually punishes in response to maladaptive behavior without correcting the faulty learning. In short Behavior Modification seeks to ACCENTUATE THE POSITIVE TO ELIMINATE THE NEGATIVE.

ELIMINATION OF MALADAPTIVE BEHAVIOR

1. Decide what maladaptive behavior you wish to extinguish. Is the maladaptive behavior respondent or operant? If it is respondent, what is the stimulus? Define the behavior very specifically and count the frequency of its occurrence for a few days. Using the baseline information, try to determine patterns, critical areas where the behavior occurs, critical times when behavior occurs.

2. Specify what adaptive behavior is incompatible with the maladaptive behavior.

3. Break the skill down into steps according to successive approximation and specify that step.

4. Decide what command will be utilized during the training session.

5. Determine what reinforcer (reward) would be most suitable for the particular resident.

6. Set the schedule of reinforcement. Use a constant schedule until the skill is learned and then switch to an intermittent schedule.

In order for behavior modification to be successful, the total environment must be examined. Factors that reinforce adaptive behaviors must be strengthened and factors that reinforce maladaptive behaviors must be weakened.

EDUCABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED

THE EDUCABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED CHILD

INTRODUCTION

Cooperative social institutions have demonstrated that considerable work potential of the Educable Mentally Handicapped students can be developed. Many Educable Mentally Handicapped members of the American society have become self-supporting and self-reliant if provided adaquate education, rehabilitation, and training. As reported by the President's Panel on Mental Retardation (1969), it is obviously both humane, and economically wise, so far as is possible to rehabilitate the educably handicapped from idleness and dependency to useful activity and participation as citizens. How do we as tax payers and educators choose to provide for the handicapped human being, 12 years of beneficial self-supporting development (annual per person cost $1,400) or 60 years of welfare provision (annual per person cost $4,600)?

Generalized characteristics of the Educable Mentally Handicapped cannot be recapitulated because they do not apply in every instance nor in the same degree to all children. Frolo and Penn (1970) concluded that EMH children differ from other children primarily in degree rather than in kind. Intellectually these children have difficulty in engaging in abstract thinking; limited ability to see the cause and effect relationship; trouble in expressing thoughts verbally and in writing; and limited problem solving ability. They are emotionally immature and frequently do not recognize their strengths and weaknesses of getting along with other people. Socially they often have a difficult time in forming friendships and using appropriate judgement along with limited experiences upon which to make decisions. In many cases they have had poor experiences in school, experienced excessive failure in as well as out of school, and often come from families who do not place any value on education. Physically they often have inferior motor coordination, occasional speech defects, and abnormalities which detract from their appearance.

The education of the EMH must be viewed as a unique process. The EMH child has various needs and abilities which must be evaluated and programs structured to meet these unique needs. They cannot be homogeneously grouped and segregated from the non-handicapped population. Many of the handicapped persons have abilities that are equal to that of the non-handicapped, hence equal educational provisions must be made. Is there a human being that does not possess a unique characteristic or need fulfillment? We as unique human beings with knowledge and wisdom must mold the behavior of other unique persons to fit into our unique society.

REFERRALS AND SCREENING

Any individual placed in a special education class functions at approximately an I.Q. level between 55 and 80 as measured by an individually administered test such as the Wechsler-Bellevue I or II, the WISC, WAIS, or the Revised Standford-Binet. The State of Arizona at the present time is attempting to change legislation to specify guidelines assuring citizens of the state that children with language handicapps are not unjustly placed in special classes. These newly revised guidelines are being compiled and should be available to the authorized school representatives by mid-July 1972.

The applicant for a special education program should be screened by a team, at least three members, with each member compiling as much information as possible about the candidate and/or his family. The following factors should be used to identify special education pupils and in determining the need for assignment to special education classes:

(a) A case history, school records, and teachers recommendations.
(b) School achievement tests such as COOP, CAT, MAT, etc.
(c) Past performance and grades of the pupil if the student had previously been enrolled in a school.

An evaluation is required by ARS 15-1013 and attention is called to the following quotation from the law:

"B. Before a child is placed in a special education program an evaluation shall be made of the capabilities and limitations of the child. The evaluation shall be made by at least one professional specialist in a field relevant to the child's handicap and under the direction of the Chief Administrative Official of the school district or county of such person designated by him as responsible for special education. If appropriate, the educational implications of the handicapping conditions shall be evaluated by a psychologist.

C. The results of the evaluation shall be submitted in writing and with recommendations to the chief Administrative Official of the school district or county or to such person designated by him as responsible for special education."

A student cannot be placed in a special education program until the screening, referral, and evaluation have been completed. A parent or guardian of the applicant will be required to sign a written application requesting their child to enter a special education program.

Schools must be careful not to accept pupils into special education classes if behavior problems in the existing classes seem to be the principle reason for the referral by the teacher(s) or requested placement thereof.

As defined by ARS 15 1014 the special education placement must be reviewed by law:

> "The placement of a child in a special education program shall be reviewed by the Chief Administrative Official of the school district or county or such person as designated by him as requested by the parent or guardian of the child or recommended by the person conducting the special education program. A copy of the results of the review shall be submitted to the person making such request or recommendation for review."

Most programs re-appraise the youngsters at least once a year regardless of the formal request by the parent or guardian. The annual evaluation is conducted by all special education staff members of a school with each student's progress and development being examined. Students who have explicited superior academic and social achievement, in comparison to their peers throughout the year, are recommended for enrollment in the "regular program." The child, parent or guardian, counselor, and a minimum of two of the child's instructors attend a staffing and present the recommendation of transfer to the parent or guardian and the child. If the child is transferred to the regular program an intimate follow-up is asserted on the child's performance during the first transferred term. Program flexibility and total staff cooperation allow for individual needs fulfillment and abilities to be developed. If the child can progress satisfactorily in the "regular program" he remains. If however, his progress is unsatisfactory he is granted the option of re-enrolling in the special program. Throughout the transfer transaction the parent or guardian is closely adivsed of the child's progress and are active on the decision making team.

Levine's (1970) parlance of the Milwaukee "fixed point of referral" has positive implications for a metropolitan community. The concept of the fixed point of referral is to provide a life consulting service for the handicapped person and his family. The central referral has two functions:

(1) Screen and provide consulting services;
(2) Seeing that the client does not topple off the production line.

A cooperative team approach for existing social agencies (schools, churches, associations, and governmental departments) within the community could provide analogous functions to fulfill the needs of the handicapped within the larger city communities. The functions of the schools and vocational rehabilitation can be structured to provide a two year post high school counseling service for vocational and occupational development. Churches and associations for the handicapped can contribute by providing life-time social and recreational advise for the handicapped and his family.

PERCEPTION

A person's perception is the way that he is aware of his immediate environment, the world around him. Human beings use this manner to organize experience to establish order and meaning in the world. Awareness of the world depends on the six senses and their stimulation. Each individual might have a different reaction about something he sees, hears, feels, tastes, touches, or smells. This is because we have had different stimuli and perceive things differently. The mentally handicapped child may have difficulty in any one or combination of his six senses. Some of the frequently identified perceptual difficulties of the Educable Mentally Handicapped children are listed below:

1. Erratic body control
2. Lack of balance
3. Lack of muscular control
4. Poor dexterity control (coloring, writing, tracing, etc.)
5. No habitual side dominence
6. Poor sense of direction (locating items)
7. Unequal development
8. Illustrating figures
9. Incorrect spacial relationships
10. Entangled self-concept
11. Hearing disability
12. Problems in writing - (all visual perception problems come to focus in writing)
13. Cannot form abstract concepts
14. Child cannot understand past, present, and future concepts

An early diagnosis of the problem is necessary to have the greatest benefit for the child and his future in education. As teachers we can no longer excuse ourselves by saying it's the childs fault - we must know what the fault is and do something about it. The following paragraphs will be helpful to guide the child in his perceptual development.

Visual Perception and Discrimination

In the area of visual perception the objectives listed below should be achieved:

1. Do directional drills
2. See difference in geometric figures
3. Know his right and left side
4. See detail in pictures
5. See difference in form and position of objects
6. Have figure-ground perception.
7. See likeness and difference in word configuration
8. Perform and pattern matching drills
9. Discriminate between words similar in appearance
10. Perceive spacial relationships

Activities to aid the child in this area are:

1. Go around and touch objects of different color.
2. Tell what is in a picture
3. Place three objects in a row on a table, mix them up, have the child arrange them as they were at first.
4. Have the child match many things.
5. Be sure the child can recognize and copy his own name.

Motor Development

In the area of motor development a child should be able to:

1. Static - put weight on one foot or the other for a set period of time (15 seconds)
2. Dynamic - hop on one foot or the other without traveling for a set period of time (10 seconds)
3. Coordination - skip for measured distance, gallop for measured distance, jump rope by himself for a set count (10 seconds)
4. Receiving and giving impetus - throw and catch a ball from a set distance (15 feet)

Activities to aid the child in this area are:

1. Follow the leader
2. Skipping
3. Hop on one foot back and forth over rope on floor
4. Jack be nimble
5. Walks on line
6. Running on toes
7. High stepping horses
8. Tracing broken lines
9. Do clapping variations
10. Rhythm bands

Auditory Perception

In the area of auditory perception a child should be able to:

1. Understand common spoken words
2. Do simple listening drills
3. Reproduce rhyming sounds
4. Hear and reproduce letters of the alp
5. Match first sounds of words
6. Recognize rhyming words and pictures
7. Perceive rhythmic sould
8. Recognize and discriminate between common sounds
9. Match initial consonant sounds to pictures
10. Hear first, last and middle sounds in words

Activities to aid the child in this area are:

1. Leader taps rhythm on table and child must repeat

2. Child must guess what leader tapped on table
3. Child must listen for words beginning with same sound
4. Child must identify animal sounds
5. Child must identify rhyming words
6. Tell the child a short and simple story and have him retell it as accurately as possible
7. Have the child close his eyes and then have another child recite a jingle, the first child must guess who did the reciting.
8. There are many singing and musical games
9. One child bounces a ball and another child must tell how many times the first child bounced the ball
10. One child will hide with a bell and another must find him by listening to the sound of the bell

The educable mentally handicapped child deserves every opportunity to develop his abilities fully. A perceptual program should be included in the special education program for the childs enjoyment, success, more positive teacher attention, and the teaching of better study skills such as attention and following directions.

BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION

Blackham and Silberman (1071) state that it is the task, by the socialization, training, and education to strive to accomplish two basic goals:

1. To facilitate acquisition of desirable behavior that is not present in the individual's repertoire, and;

2. To change behavior that is already acquired that is socially undesirable or self-defeating. If this is the teacher's task, how then can we identify the forms of behavior the child should keep and those that need to be changed or unlearned?

The decision to change a child's behavior should come after much observation and should involve at least three criteria. First, the behavior presumed to be maladjusted must occur with sufficient frequency. Second, the behavior, if continued, will ultimately end up being hurtful to child and/or environment. Third, the behavior impedes subsequent adaption and healthy development.

Perhaps one useful way to conceptualize what is considered adaptive behavior is to determine the extent to which a person is successfully meeting the realistic expectations and demands made on him in broad areas of living (Blackham and Silberman, 1971).

According to Tharp (1969) the aim of the workers in behavior modification is to show that human behavior is controlled by the environment and that certain reorganization of the relationships between human behavior and the surrounding milieu will result in change in behavior.

Behavior modification techniques tend to specify roles which individuals in the environment of the patient may play to modify the patient's behavior.

Principles

Tharp (1969) also states that the principles of reinforcement are concerned with rewards and punishments and the enormous influence which they have on behavior. We reward or punish certain behaviors of the child because we wish to influence the frequency with which their behaviors occur. Some events will increase the frequency of behaviors they follow, commonly called rewards or positive reinforcers. Other events will increase the frequency of behaviors if they are removed following those behaviors. They are called negative reinforcers.

A child for whom rewards do not have a reinforcing value is at a distinct disadvantage because society frequently reinforces in the form of rewards. A common reinforcer in the adult world is money.

Behavior can be increased in frequency and maintained by the addition of positive and/or the removal of negative reinforcers.

If one were to describe many behavior modification techniques in the simplest way, it would be: arrange and manage reinforcement contingencies such that desired behaviors are increased in frequency and/or removed from the repertoire.

The researcher must assess the environment for potential reinforcers, assess the total repertoire of the person, and take into account the total situation before he decides to try a particular approach in the modification of the behavior (Tharp, 1969).

Application and Use with the Mentally Handicapped

Children who have trouble learning in school frequently have behavior problems as well. Arena (1967) states that the most difficult problem is that of providing each of the children who have learning difficulties with an individualized curriculum which is functional for them.

One technique (giving candies for checks) is for the teacher to find a reward which is more enticing to the child than the satisfaction that child gets from his misbehaving. The educational task of the child must be geared to such a level that the child cannot help but receive the reward. He is then being rewarded for what you have asked him to do and that he has accomplished and is not being rewarded for something he has determined he will do (Arena, 1967).

Classroom Design for Mentally Handicapped

One of the more widely used and better known classroom designs is Hewett's (1967, 1968) engineered classroom. It is designed to assist a class of nine children who have educational or emotional difficulties.

Hewett believes that significant learning or behavior change may be achieved when three basic ingredients are designed into a classroom:

1. Appropriate educational tasks
2. Rewards that are meaningful to the learner, and
3. Appropriate teacher control

Hewett (1968) lists seven behaviors in a graduated hierarchy of seven levels: attention, response, order, exploration, social approval, mastery, and achievement.

To help each pupil acquire the basic skills or abilities considered desirable, the classroom is arranged into centers. The order center is designed to help the child to attend, respond, and appropriately order his behavior. The exploratory center includes activities relating to science, art and communication, and is intended to encourage intellectual exploration and enhance social behavior. The third and main area of activity is the mastery center, where both pupil and teacher desks are located and is where academic assignments are undertaken. Two isolated study booths are in this area for use when a child needs less distraction (Hewett, 1968).

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL COMPETENCIES

Social competence refers to the adequacy a person can display in meeting the demands of society, especially the demands that are made by others in his immediate environment (Baumeister, 1967). In recent years our society has changed in the trend toward urbanization, upgrading of cultural standards, a more highly educated public and most of all the increasing supplementation of training by the school. This has produced a more complex life for everyone, thereby making life more difficult for the mentally handicapped individual. The mentally handicapped should receive a strong training in acceptable modes of social behavior simply because where a normal child learns his social graces casually through daily living, a mentally handicapped child must be trained to acquire these skills.

Slaughter (1960) stated the parent should begin his teaching of good social behavior long before his child may be expected to practice such behavior. The initial step in the teaching of good manners and in the development of thoughtful attitudes should be exemplification. The child who has heard "please" and "thank you" over a long period of time will in due time adopt their use. A mentally handicapped child will tend to remain individualistic, rather than cooperative, for a longer period of time than does the child of normal intelligence, but he can be taught that "mine" is not the only possessive pronoun in the English language. He should, however, have property rights of his own which are treated with respect. He should have his turn to to things at the same time he is learning that there are others who deserve turns.

He must also have an opportunity to have play experiences with other children so that he can learn the meaning of fair play, learn to take turns, learn to share and experience the warm feeling that he has contributed as a worthwhile member of the group. Only through social interaction can he expand and grow socially.

Some mentally handicapped children behave like trainable mentally handicapped persons because the behavioral outcomes set for them by their parents and teachers are those of substandard social behavior (Kolstoe, 1960). Social competencies involve instruction and experience designed to develop the self-concept, social values, and social inter-action skills.

According to the studies of Kolstoe (1970) how one feels about himself is how he perceives the world. In the area of self, outcomes which should be developed at various levels are:

Preprimary Level

1. Knows and can tell his name.
2. Knows and can tell his age.
3. Knows the difference between his and others' belongings.
4. Is aware of physical characteristics of self and others. such as likenesses and differences in height, weight, age and apparel.

Primary Level

1. Knows his home address, telephone number, and birth date.
2. Knows the names of his family members.
3. Has independent work habits.
4. Has adequate habits of cleanliness, neatness, and care of property.
5. Has personal preferences in selection of games, food, clothing, and friends.
6. Can recognize when a task is completed.

Intermediate Level

1. Recognizes when he has engaged in behavior which has good inter-personal consequences.
2. Can distinguish between satsifactory and unsatisfactory task behavior.
3. Is able to participate in cooperative effort.
4. Can accept and profit from constructive criticism.
5. Recognizes and can accept rules and laws.

Since through example and activities, the outcomes to be developed are:

Preprimary Level

1. Participates in sharing and taking turns.
2. Knows and observes the rules of the classroom.
3. Can play successfully in small groups.
4. Knows the rules of courtesy such as "Excuse me," "Thank you," and "please."

Primary Level

1. Practices good table manners.
2. Can share experiences, possessions, and ideas with others in the class.
3. Knows behavior appropriate to the classroom, halls, lunchroom, drinking fountain, and bus.
4. Recognizes and accepts the authority of the teacher, principal, custodian, and other teachers.
5. Can cooperate in group activities.

Intermediate Level

1. Knows that school experiences prepare people for everyday living.
2. Understands and practices punctuality.
3. Practices habits of good health and grooming.
4. Can identify important people by role and title.

The development of an adequate self-concept and appropriate behavior in school should be transferred to home and community actions. Outcomes which should be strived for are:

Preprimary Level

1. Knows the location of his home.
2. Knows the rooms in his home.
3. Knows and carries out chores such as picking up his toys, clothes and other items.
4. Knows the work of his father and mother (or surrogates).

Primary Level

1. Knows location of his home with respect to stores, movies, and public buildings.
2. Knows rules of cooperation in family activities such as conversation, TV, use of the telephone, and parties.
3. Knows proper behavior at the movies, on the bus or subway, in a restaurant, in the swimming pool, and in the library.
4. Knows the community helpers: policeman, fireman, garbage collector, milkman, bus driver, or subway conductor.
5. Knows what to do when lost.
6. Knows about family service personnel such as doctors, dentists, nurses, clergyman, druggists.
7. Respects the property rights of others.

Intermediate Level

1. Knows the location and how to use the nearest fire alarm and police station services.
2. Can use the community transportation systems.
3. Knows about some of the local industries, occupations, and businesses and the jobs people perform.
4. Knows about historical figures such as Columbus, Washington, and Lincoln.

MATH FOR THE EDUCABLE MENTALLY HANDICAPPED CHILD

The Educable child is not ready as early for arithmetic as the normal child. He cannot progress as rapidly nor grasp the concepts as soon, but he can master enough arithmetic to be functional in family and community life. Educable children are limited in the amount and type of arithmetic they can learn.

According to Kirk (1962) some of the more important principles of teaching arithmetic to the mentally retarded are:

1. Find the level where the child can succeed and have him proceed at his own speed.
2. Present all material in a simple, precise, and understandable manner.
3. Give ample individual help and attention.
4. Use concrete materials as often as possible.
5. Teach in easy one-at-a-time steps with repetition.

The teaching and learning process must be of a mechanistic nature. Immediate aim is to enable the child to function regardless of his comprehension at the time. Rote learning is the retarded child's basic means of learning. After the child has memorized the numbers, he can be taught to count objectively. After he has memorized some of the addition facts, he is taught to apply them to concrete objective situations.

In the Primary level, arithmetic is taught informally through experiences which teach the child to count and understand number concepts, and terms of quantity, and to recognize written numbers. The child is also introduced to concepts of time, money, temperature, weight, size, and fraction, as whole and half. At this time the concept of time is presented as today, tomorrow, yesterday, a week, a year, and an hour. It is not until the child reaches the intermediate level that he is taught to tell time by the clock.

In the Intermediate level a more formal approach is used. The child is taught rational counting, at least to 100, and also to write the numbers to 100. The 81 additional facts are presented to him. Subtraction is introduced as the separating or taking away. The child is usually able to count by 2's, 5's and 10's; and he learns to make change for twenty-five cents, fifty cents, and if possible, one dollar. The child is given lessons dealing with measures of pints, quarts, inches, feet, yards, and pounds. He has practice in oral problem solving. Now he learns how many hours are in a day, when it is noon time, meal time, and bed time.

In the Secondary level social arithmetic is stressed. The tools are applied to situations the student may meet in life. These concepts include figuring what his salary might be, saving money, banking, paying taxes, insurance, leases, and mortages.

At the end of his schooling the student should be able to add four digits and carry, subtract four digits and borrow, use simple fractions, read thermometers, tell time correctly, and use a calendar. He should know money terms and values and have an understanding of the services of a bank. He should be able to function in normal situations and know where and how to get help beyond his ability.

MUSIC CURRICULUM

It is every child's right to enjoy music and its activities as an integral part of his being. The key to working successfully with anyone is to find his area of strength and then build on that. According to Hoem (1972), in a significantly large number of retarded children, the only weak area of experience is reading. Their strong areas are often math, mechnaical arts, music and creative arts. Consistent positive musical experience significantly improve self-concept and this in turn contributes markedly to the confidence vital for the re-entry of the EMH child into the regular classroom. Specifically, music experiences have helped these students to develop coordination through rhythmic activities, to improve their ability to concentrate, and to discover inate abilities and to express joy. Music also stimulates reading activities and promotes personal pride in appearance. As success experiences multiply, so does the child's self-confidence.

A study according to Graham (1972) indicates that the musical achievement expectations of the EMH child are as follows:

Preschool (0-5 years)

1. Can learn to sing simple songs shortly after fourth birthday
2. Pitch problems quite prevalent
3. Might listen to music that interests him for brief periods

School-Age (6-21 years)

1. At lowest level, can usually be taught to use a variety of physical movements to emphasize beat, accent and pattern in music
2. At higher levels can be taught to accomplish practically anything offered in the typical elementa y grade curriculum guide.

The EMH program is usually designed to equip the child with those skills needed to make a living and become an effective, happy human being. The music in a special education program helps to bring about such skills by providing the child not only with a means for aesthetic expression, but also with lessons in social development.

Gingland (1965) states that music can accomplish the following things in these four major areas:

1. Mental health. Realizing a feeling of participation, belonging and achievement; providing an acceptable outlet for physical and emotional tensions; developing poise and self-confidence; expressing feeling, and in general, fun and happiness.

2. Social development and adjustment. Group participation; following directions; extending attention span; sharing and taking turns; as an aid to simple role-playing and dramatization; appreciating social concepts; developing self-dicipline and self-control.

3. Language development. Developing auditory discrimination and memory; learning many speech sounds and associating sounds with action, direction and objects; increasing vocabulary and rote learning.

4. Physical development motor and muscular. Using large and small muscles; aiding coordination; developing a sense of rhythm and tempo; learning to control movement; developing basic physical skills.

The music chosen to accomplish these goals should have a clear simple melody and singing these melodies is a vital part of music instruction. Because of the reading handicap, many songs are taught by rote. Songs should be short with much phrase repetition. The content should be within the child's experiences such as folk, game, and patriotic songs.

Rhythmic experiences both imitative and creative are vitally important. The rhythm should be strong and easily felt by the children. Body rhythms such as clapping, walking, marching, skipping and running are important as background development to square dancing, folk dancing, and singing games. Creative movement can be initiated by musical sounds of various durations - short sounds for quick, jerky movements, long sounds for fluid, sustained movements. Creative dance develops from imitative, mirrored movements progressing to free interpretation of music with the aid of scarfs, balls, hula hoops, puppets and any other device that inspires intense listening while aiding loss of self-consciousness.

Playing simple percussion instruments such as a drum, woodblock, sandblocks, or xylophone aids greatly in feeling the rhythm and in developing an awareness of simple harmony. It is an enjoyable outlet in which children can have a worthwhile aesthetic experience. Instruments such as autoharp, ukelele, and guitar play a very important part in ear training. The autoharp is a particularly simple folk instrument to play and can

provide nearly instant success for its player. A recorder is another relatively simple instrument to play. Children can experiment in playing familiar melodies and eventually learn to read musical notation.

Music can be a unifying activity in the classroom not visited by a music specialist. It can develop group feeling and a pleasant atmosphere. Gingland (1965) states that a variety of short music periods throughout the day can relieve tensions and help combat restlessness due to too much sitting and concentration on more frustrating tasks.

Teachers will find music as a reinforcement agent in the following areas:

1. Learning to listen
2. Speech articulation
3. Knowledge of left & right, up & down, fast & slow, loud & soft.
4. Better body control through playing instruments, body rhythms, dancing
5. Counting
6. Following directions and rules in musical games
7. Learning self-control in a stimulating exciting environment
8. Better posture and grace through dance movements
9. Learning discipline and cooperation in an environment foreign to regular classroom
10. Development of self-confidence
11. Enrichment through dramatics, instrumental and choral concert attendance and participation, and music appreciation.

Daily opportunities for musical experience in a well-structured music program involving singing, dancing, listening, playing instruments and creating will help the mentally retarded child to develop musically, emotionally, physically and socially.

MUSIC DOES REACH THE RETARDED CHILD AND CAN BE ONE OF OUR MOST EFFECTIVE TEACHING TOOLS.

CAREER EDUCATION

Support of Career Education. In watching children play, one becomes cognizant of career development that is in the process. In observing children playing Tennyson (1971) noted the measurement of self-worth, building of self-esteem, satisfaction of needs of achievement; they test their potential, discover themselves, and form identities. It is amazing how central these children's actions are to the goals of the career and vocational educators.

The astonishment is the way in which we as educators can structure behavioral attitudes and patterns to unconsciously assimulate that work is different than play. Our monitary values, superb grading and marking system, and our superficial reinforcers have resulted in the repression of positive learning attitudes and the regression of enthusiasm these youngsters once had for work.

The Vocational Education Amendments of 1968 have focused renewed attention on the handicapped. Congress has mandated that 20% of all Federal funds allocated to the individual state and local vocational education agencies be distributed to provide for the career and vocational development of the handicapped (Vocational Education for Handicapped Persons Handbook, 1969). The national legislation expressed its sensitivity for career development by influencing programs to the full range of students, K through 14, college bound as well as non-college bound and all disciplines of handicapped citizens.

Occupational Exposure. Educators have not had the best preparation to assist or contribute to the vocational development of students. Teachers and counselors have strategically matched an individual's characteristics with the occupational requirements and resolved a decided vocation for all students. Special educators, in most cases, do not have the background or framework to provide the necessary experiences for the educable Mentally Handicapped. These students must be conditioned and trained to achieve the status of a self-sufficient member of our society. Elementary educators of the Mentally Handicapped must broaden their traditional concepts and orient these students to the occupationally relevant expectations of our "world of work." All products of the American school system must be developed to their fullest potential. This development must correlate with each individuals potential. If a graduating Mentally Handicapped student's reading potential will be achieved at the fourth grade level then the play at work objectives must begin with teachers of the EMH children at the first grade to provide for the achievement of self-development necessary for successful occupational placement and retention.

Reported in industrial literature by Herzberg, Mausner, and Snyderman (1959) the graduates of the American school systems must adapt to the "humanness" of the working environment. A major contribution to the poor work stimulation, decreased production, worker dissatisfaction and unrest is the inability of management and the newly employed graduate to adjust. If management is assisting to provide directly for the education (field trips, curriculum implementation, speakers, etc.) of the Educable Mentally Handicapped, will they not likewise employ the EMH human beings upon achievement of graduation.

Planning for Career Education. Career education is a blending of academic, vocational, pre-college, special, and general education as defined by Worthington (1972). The fundamental concept of career education is that all educational experiences, curriculum instruction, and counseling must be geared to preparing for economic independence, personal fulfillment, and an appreciation for the dignity of work. Ideally, every student will leave school with an entry-level job or the capability of continuing his higher education.

Career Education at the Primary and Intermediate Levels. Career education at the primary and intermediate levels is basically an explatory interrelationary composition of the entire curriculum. Structured pupil learning experiences include; field trips to the industrial and business firms of the community to understand the concepts, expectations, and job responsibilities of specific employment within the classification of the Occupational Galaxies, media centers to provide teachers the opportunity of enhancing the pupil's knowledge, and to implement career concepts into existing curriculum where correlation of subject matter and career concepts coincide.

Career education at the primary and intermediate levels should be structured around the following activities (Frol & Penn, 1970):

At the primary level:

1. Engage in experiential or beginning types of acceptable behavior
2. Explore skills to control or modify their environment
3. Explore understandings of the 'why' of things
4. Explore understandings of how to accomplish simple or basic activities
5. Engage in activity and behavior which is controlled, supervised or planned by adults.

Intermediate activities should include:

1. Begin to operate and perform simple and basic tasks and skills more independently
2. Begin to understand the "when" and "why" of doing things
3. Begin to make simple and correct choices
4. Begin to assume some responsibility for personal behavior
5. Begin to understand consequences of personal behavior
6. Begin to engage in more complex behavioral tasks and skills

Secondary Career Education. Career education at the secondary level becomes more specialized in the area of vocational education. At the secondary level learning behavior is focused on developing vocational competencies. Academic skills are related to communication and qualification (measuring, writing, listening, etc.). Work performance skills are related to specific job activities (engine repair, sewing, clerical tasks, use of hand tools, etc.). Personal - social skills include; getting along with peers and supervisors, punctuality and attendance, attitude and acceptable manners. Work orientation skills (remembering procedures, safety rules, transportation, physical health, understanding job information, etc.) must be related to the academic, elective, and work experience curriculum as well as "On The Job Training."

Handicapped students frequently discover that they must develop a higher level of academic competence to acquire a specific vocational skill related to their employment. Students must have a functional use of these skills. This requires a close liaison of the work coordinator, special education teacher, and vocational instructor. Concentrated individualized instructional programs will often facilitate achievement of these functional skills if the handicapped student can determine that his continued employment or job training is dependent upon the acquisition of a particular skill. (e.g., a student is enrolled in academic classes in the morning and working "On The Job Training" at a hardware store in the afternoon. The work coordinator determines that this student must learn how to measure or the training will be terminated. The coordinator, and teachers, individualize this student's learning activities in the academic classes to develop competent measuring skills.)

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

The public school has a basic responsibility for providing programs for all children during the school years as defined by local law or regulation. These programs should be designed and conducted to achieve the individual needs of those students within their attendance areas. The educable mentally handicapped student needs a special vocational program to provide for the fulfillment of the needs to become a self-sufficient member of society after leaving school.

Younie (1966), states, as with children of higher intelligence, the goal of economic self-sufficiency is recognized as being a vital objective for the educable mentally retarded. On the basis of this information presently available, it is assumed that this goal may be reached most efficiently and effectively through a well structured, vocationally oriented program which is designated as a school work study program or some similar term.

To achieve the goal of self-sufficiency, it is essential to develop a work study program of some type that will prepare students for the working world they must enter into. Schools must design and structure the specialized curriculum to insure the handicapped students receive adequate training to prepare them for work after termination of formal education. The responsibility can be taken by the training of students in community resources, and through the close cooperation between State Departments of Special Education, Vocational Education, and Rehabilitation. The cooperative plan of these three organizations must be implemented efficiently at the local and unit levels.

COOPERATING AGENCIES

Division of Vocational Rehabilitation

The first of three cooperating organizations is Division of Vocational Rehabilitation (DVR). When an individual applies for vocational rehabilitation, he is given a diagnostic study, which consists of a comprehensive evaluation of the pertinent medical, psychological, vocational, educational, cultural, social, and environmental factors in his case. This diagnostic study, arranged by the vocational rehabilitation counselor, includes an evaluation of the individual personality, intelligence level, educational achievement, work experience, vocational apptitudes and interests, personal and social adjustment, employment opportunities, and other pertinent data which might be helpful in determining the individual's vocational education program in which he should participate. DVR is in short, the testing or evaluating part of the three agencies. (Young, E. B., 1969)

Vocational Education

Vocational Education has the specific responsibility of providing for the vocational education training of children qualifying under the special needs area. This agency is responsible for the distribution of the Federal funding allocated for career education, confirming the 20% allotment to special needs. They direct the purchase of equipment, inventory of equipment, and the coordination of workshops and institutes for counselors and special education instructors. Curriculum designs and evaluation of the sponsored programs for students and curriculum, are required and recapitulated by Vocational Education. They also establish guidelines for vocational, industrial, and special needs certification of teachers.

State Department of Special Education

The primary responsibility of this agency is the development and coordination of modified programs that will meet the special needs of the handicapped population within the public school framework.

The school uses the information given to it by DVR and the funding made available to them by the State Department to put together the type of individualized program the student may need. They supply instrution designed to give the student preparation for their future job, and eventual economic self-sufficiency. The work coordinator takes the responsibility of job placement and follow-up.

Research of Fraenkel (1970), indicates that Mentally retarded children learn best with special training which is provided by classroom educators during their school years.

SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS

A Secondary Program in Buffalo

A student entering the secondary program for the retarded under this special needs program, undertakes a curriculum designed for four years. Each year is a sequence of stages planned to develop the students' potential and prepare him to take part in the world of work. Students progress through four identifiable phases on an individual basis.

Phase I serves as an orientation period during which the student learns to adjust to the school surroundings. At this time, he learns to follow a rigid schedule: gains poise and self-control; generally becomes familiar with the world of work; gains more competence in the basic skills; learns to recognize and accept his own limitations; is introduced to job opportunities available and how to apply them; and learns the importance of getting along with others.

Phase II serves a dual purpose. It is basically an extension of Phase I, but also includes a detailed description of the occupations available to the local community, units on how to get a job and hold it, and preparation for in-school and out-of-school work experience. The student learns to use the basic skill subjects to help him function independently. He also is taught the geography of government of the local community. Field trips are the major vehicle of instruction.

Phase III includes an in-school work program as an introduction to further work experience. This phase is a prerequisite to Phase IV. The student uses the basic skill subjects to help him in various job situations within the school environment. He receives the training necessary to support himself in the world of work. The underlying philosophy of this phase of the curriculum is to enable the student to function independently in a work situation.

Phase IV moves the student from a school situation into the community for various job experiences. He continues to participate in classroom experiences correlated with the community job and receives further training in basic skill subjects. Half the student's time is spent in school and half in the community, with a typical pattern of 20 hours a week of work experience over a period of 30 weeks. The time in school is spent devoted to facing and solving problems met in the work experiences of the student. The aim of this phase is to prepare the student to gain the proper skills to retain a job after completion of the four-year program.

A Secondary Program in Manatee County, Florida

This instructional program provides three class periods of occupational training daily throughout the school year for students who are presently assigned to special education programs in one of the seven secondary schools of the county. The students do not receive units toward graduation nor is credit given them for participating in the occupational experience program. Instead, they receive a certificate of completion. A few students, who are assigned to graded classes do receive credits for the vocational courses and many proceed to a high school diploma. The skill training consists of six courses, each concerned with a general area of service occupations. During the first few weeks of the school year, the students are rotated through the six skill training areas to give them information and ideas concerning each one. The vocational training is quite flexible, permitting varied experiences within one occupational area and in related areas. It is possible for students in this program to transfer to the regular vocational courses offered.

The placement of students from this program is usually high, almost 100% and at an average hourly rate of $1.60 per hour. The program also has a built-in follow-up counseling to assure job retention and permanency of adjustment.

LEARNING DISABILITIES

A Light Shines For Me

LEARNING DISABILITIES

DEFINITION:

An article by Kirk and Bateman states that a Learning Disability refers to a retardation, disorder, or delayed development in one or more of the processes of speech, language, reading, writing, arithmetic, or other school subjects resulting from a psychological handicap caused by a possible cerebral disfunction and/or emotional or behavioral disturbances. It is not the result of mental retardation, sensory deprivation, or cultural or instructional factors.

General Characteristics: The term most frequently cited characteristics, in order of frequency cited were:

1. Hyperactivity
2. Perceptual-motor impairments
3. Emotional stability
4. General Orientation defects
5. Disorders of attention (e.g., short attention span, distractibility)
6. Impulsivity
7. Disorders of memory and thinking
8. Specific learning disabilities in reading, arithmetic, handwriting and spelling
9. Disorders of speech and hearing
10. Equivocal neurological signs and electroencephalographic irregularities.

Objectives: The 11 objectives as listed by Bernstein are:

1. Stimulate the child's curiosity and interest in his environment
2. Utilize scientific principles and concepts that the child can understand and that will help him in a problem-solving situation
3. Provide experiences to teach the child how to cope with this physical world
4. Prepare the child for his adult life as a worker, citizen and social being
5. Help the child to function independently in his home and in the greater community
6. Assist him to develop positive attitudes toward safety practices
7. Guide him to develop sound health habits
8. Encourage pupil participation and verbal expression
9. Develop an environmental vocabulary that will help the child function in his surroundings
10. Provide concrete learning aids and experiences that will help him solve problem situations
11. Develop an awareness of each child's special needs in the solving of everyday problems.

On the following pages, this committee has broken down the I.T.P.A. test into 10 subtests. In doing this, we have identified 10 learning disabilities, given characteristics of each, given names of tests for further testing in each area, given suggestions for remediation, and given materials and activities to aid in the remediation process.

The I.T.P.A. subtests do not cover all the learning disability areas, nor do they take personality, mental set, emotional disturbances, or physical abnormalities into account. These subtests do attempt to measure perceptual and cognitive abilities which seem to bear a relationship to intellectual development and academic learning. Other tests have been mentioned for more precise pinpointing of deficits and correlated areas of possible weaknesses.

Some children show such clear signs of disability in some areas without supplementary testing, that a detailed remedial program can be set up with only the I.T.P.A. test results.

The purpose of making a diagnoses is to set up a remedial program. We, as a committee have attempted to provide some general ideas for a remedial program for each of the 10 main subtests of the I.T.P.A.

AUDITORY RECEPTION: Identification:

Auditory reception refers to the ability to understand the spoken word. (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Characteristics:

1. He may be unable to grasp more than simple oral directions
2. He may understand directions better if pictures, diagrams, or gestures are used

3. He may need to be led or physically directed when told to sit down or turn around.
4. The teacher may suspect a hearing loss
5. He may often want to work alone rather than on a team
6. He may not enjoy stories and prefer television to the radio
7. He may avoid world games
8. He may appear slow to respond
9. He may be able to repeat what he hears even though he does not understand it

Related Tests:

1. P.P.V.T. (Dunn, 1965),
2. Benet
3. Wisc
4. Ask the child informally if a pair of words sound the same or different
5. Wepman
6. Have him checked out by an audiologist (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Play Simple Simon games without using visual clues
2. Use short, one concept phrases
3. Ask short questions
4. Use experience charts in reading
5. Give visual clues whenever possible
6. Use visual aids as much as possible (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials:

A.D.D. (Auditory Discrimination in Depth) 25-100, $49.50, Teaching Resources, Inc., 100 Boyston Street, Boston, Mass. 02116

Activities:

Understanding and following Verbal Directorns. Games: Third Grade.

1. Simon Says - This is a game where the leader gives commands which must be obeyed when preceeded by "Simon Says."

2. I say stoop - This is a game in which the leader gives commands that are to be followed regardless of the leader's actions.

VISUAL RECEPTION: Identification:

Visual reception, or visual decoding refers to the ability of the child to understand or interpret what he sees - that is, the ability to comprehend the meaning of symbols, written words, or pictures. (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Characteristics:

1. The child may not have cared much for picture books and is slow in identifying pictures of objects
2. The child often fails to obtain context clues from illustrations and often cannot explain what is happening
3. The child may have difficulty arranging pictures in proper order
4. The child is often slow in completing workbook assignments
5. The child is sometimes insensitive to grimaces and facial expressions

Related Tests:

1. P.P.V.T.
2. Benet
3. Wisc
4. SRA Primary Mental Abilities Test (Thurnstone & Thurnstone, 1953)
5. Minnesota Preschool Scale (Goodenough, Maurer & VanWagenen, 1940)
6. Parts of the Columbia Mental Maturity Scale (Buremeister, Blum & Lorge, 1954)
7. Frostig's Developmental Tests of Visual Perception (1964)
8. The Developmental Form Sequence Test (Beery and Buktencia, 1967) (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. The child should be allowed to auditorize whenever possible
2. Reading should be taught by using the phonetic method
3. Comprehension should be checked carefully, giving auditory clues
4. The child should use records, tape recorders or other methods of auditorizing material to be learned. (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials:

Cuisenaire Corporation of America, 12 Church Street, New Rochelle, N.Y. 10805, Cuisenaire Rods (1958).

Whitman Publishing Co., Racine, Wisconsin, Picture Word Book, Simple Objects to Color. (Grade 2)

Activities: Games - Seventh and Eighth Grade

1. The student looks at a map as the teacher calls out a capital or principal city. The student then writes the city and state.
2. Use a flannelboard outline map of states in the United States. Capitals on cards are given to the student. When the teacher calls on a certain state, the student places a capital card in that state.
3. The flannelboard can also be used for word-matching games

AUDITORY ASSOCIATION: Identification:

Auditory Association is the ability to draw relationships from what is heard.

Characteristics:

1. The child may have difficulty categorizing objects verbally
2. The child seldom uses similes and metaphores
3. The child often has difficulty grasping the idea of sets and subsets or outlining material
4. The child is often slow to respond to tasks requiring generalizations
5. The child may have difficulty relating the moral of the story because it is difficult for him to see correspondence between the abstract situation and the tangible example given in the story
6. The child may not detect incongruities in absurd statements
7. The child may have difficulty solving riddles or understanding puns, proverbs, and parables
8. The child may fail to understand a joke
9. The child may not see relationships like "whole-part"
10. The child may have difficulty in generalizing from one situation to another

Related Tests:

1. Benet
2. Wisc
3. Tests of similarities and differences, opposites and analogies, and verbal absurdities (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Ask the child one-concept questions, eliciting several short answers
2. Accept concrete answers
3. Supply more abstract clues for him
4. Provide visual clues whenever possible
5. Give enough time for each response
6. Give the child written questions to think about before answering oral questions. (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials:

Developmental Learning Materials, $250.00, 3505 N. Ashland Ave., Chicago, Ill. 60657 (Imagery, Motor, Discrimination, Figure Ground, Memory). Bell and Howell Company, 7100 McCormick Road, Chicago, Illinois 60654. The Language Master.

Activities: Simon Says - Fourth Grade.

This familiar game may be used to improve attention span and Auditory Perception. Use more difficult phrases as the child responds. Be sure student understands they are to remain still unless instruction begins "Simon Says."

1. Hold left ear lobe with right hand
2. Hop on right foot three times, left foot twice, and both feet together four times
3. Turn around twice to the left and sit down
4. Take three steps forward and five steps back beginning on the left foot
5. Pat your head with your left hand and rub your stomach with your right hand

VISUAL ASSOCIATION: Identification:

Visual Association is the ability to relate, organize and manipulate visual symbols in a meaningful way. (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Characterists:

1. The child may do poorly in craft work because he does not see relationships among materials
2. The child often fails to grasp content of a story from a series of pictures
3. The child may have difficulty in putting a series of pictures in the correct order
4. The child may fail to use context clues from the illustrations.

Related Tests:

1. Raven Progressive Matrices (1947)
2. Healy Picture Completion Tests I and II
3. Columbia Mental Maturity Scale (1954)
4. Minnesota Preschool Scale (1940)
5. Leiter International Scale (1955)
6. Reading readiness materials including drawing a line from a word to a correct choice of a group of pictures
7. Classification of pictures by putting all things to wear into one pile, etc.
(Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Permit the child to trace correct responses first
2. Provide as many auditory clues as possible
3. Teach Dolch 220 words
4. Teach the phonetic elements as the child grows as an independent reader
(Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials: Continental Press, Elizabethtown, Pa., 17022 , Instructional Materials for Exceptional Children by Eichler and Snyder (1958). Grade 1. Gerrard Publishing Co., Champaign, Illinois 61820. "The Happy Bears" story reading pad by E. W. Dolch (1956). First Grade.

Activities: Third Grade

Wordo, like Bingo, requires individual cards divided into sixteen or twenty-five squares. Each square has a noun or verb printed in it. The teacher or leader flashes picture cards and the child places a bottle cap or button over the matching word. The winner calls "wordo" and selects the correct picture before earning a point.

Verbal Expression: Identification:

Verbal Expression is the ability to put one's ideas into words. It involves the intent to express a concept as well as the actual verbal ability.

Characteristics:

1. The child may answer questions with one word answers or not at all
2. The child may rely on gestures to express himself
3. The child seldom adds much to class discussion
4. The child sometimes can understand complicated language but is at a loss for words in expressing himself orally
5. The child may raise his hand to answer questions, but when called upon, he may stumble and give an inadequate answer.
6. The child may want to draw a picture or express with his hands rather than tell about it
7. The older child generally does beautiful work on paper, but does poorly on oral work
8. A teacher may notice these children because they seem dull until he gets to know them better and finally ranks them greater than average in the class
9. Some of these children talk a lot, but have very little to say

Related Tests:

1. Benet
2. Wisc
3. Sometimes a through speech analysis may be necessary
4. See if the child has the basic vocal skills which make speech flow easily
5. See if the child lacks content of ideas to express
(Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Give the child the opportunity and time for oral responses
2. Give the child moral support and many verbal clues during periods of show-and-tell
3. Provide visual clues to help the child describe events
4. Encourage the child to give oral reports permitting him to use notes and visual aids.
(Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials:

People Fingertip Puppets, G625. Creative Playthings, Princeton, New Jersey, $2.50

Activities:

Rhyming Game - Second Grade. A child begins the game by saying, "I have a hat." Next child may say, "I have a hat and a cat." The third child may say, "I have a hat, a cat, and a bat."

MANUAL EXPRESSION: Identification:

Manual Expression is the ability to express an idea or ideas with hand gestures.

Characteristics:

1. This child is not "motor-minded" and would rather tell you than show you how to do something.
2. The child may use few gestures
3. The child may find it difficult to dramatize stories and plays
4. The child may or may not be bodily clumsy
5. The child often has an inadequate concept of the location of body parts and may misjudge the space required for body movement
6. The child may have difficulty understanding simple maps
7. The child may easily get lost in a new building because of lack of motor-mindedness
8. The child may have trouble with jigsaw puzzles
9. The child may have difficulty with drawing
10. In drawing a man, the child may mislocate parts of the body
11. The child's writing may be illegible

Related Tests:

1. Benet - (Formboard and block building subtests)
2. Goodenough Draw-A-Man Test (Goodenough, 1962; Harris, 1963)
3. Money Road Map Test (1965)
4. Bender-Gestalt
5. Developmental Test of Visual Motor Integration (1967)
6. Ontario School Ability Exam (1936)
7. Purdue Perceptual Rating Survey (Kephart, 1960)
   (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Do not expect the child to participate before the group
2. Allow the child to express his ideas verbally as well as manually.
   (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials:

Peabody Language Development Kit, American Guidance Service Incorporated, Publishers Building, Circle Pines, Minnesota 50014

Activities:

Show-me game - The teacher or child may be the leader and ask to have the following pantomimed: Something your mother does at home; something you like to eat; something you like to wear; something a cowboy does, etc. The possibilities here are many.

AUDITORY CLOSURE: Identification:

Auditory Closure refers to the ability of the child to grasp a word when only part of the word is presented to him. He must use closure to identify the word. (Kirk, 1971)

Characteristics:

1. The child may have trouble learning plurals, past tenses, irregular forms of verbs, etc.
2. The child may have trouble learning nursery rhymes, learning to count, learning multiplication facts by rote, learning to tell time, learning his teacher's name or the childrens' names.

Related Tests:

1. Check auditory discrimination test
2. Take into account the language spoken in the home
   (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Encourage the child to imitate the teacher's use of the correct grammatical language
2. Encourage the child to memorize short poems and phrases
3. Provide visual clues whenever possible
4. Check the child's sound blending abilities before pressuring him with phonics training
5. Strengthen the sight vocabulary by use of drill activities.
   (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials:

Peabody Language Stimulus Cards. American Guidance Service, Incorporated, Publishers Building, Circle Pines, Minnesota 55014

Activities:

The Commercial Game - Fifth Grade. Use well known TV commercials. The teacher gives the first few words. The child then completes the commercial with the correct word; such as:

1. You should brush after each (meal).
2. Don't be a litter (bug)
3. Only you can prevent forest (fires)

VISUAL CLOSURE: Identification:

Visual closure is the ability to recognize a visual whole from the presentation of a part of mutilated parts. (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Characteristics:

1. The child may have difficulty placing his hands in a particular position
2. The child may have difficulty matching shapes of geometric figures
3. The child may have difficulty maintaining his sense of direction
4. The child may have difficulty differentiating vertical from horizontal numbers
5. The child may have difficulty reading, telling time, and using maps

Related Tests:

1. Minnesota Preschool Scale
2. Wisc (manikin and picture completion parts)
   (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Use visual closure cards
2. Use puzzles
3. Use Aids to Psycholinguistic Teaching by Bush and Giles, pages 175 - 176.
4. Cut actual objects into parts so the child can manipulate them

Materials:

Dunnoff Program, Teaching Resources Corp., 100 Boylston St., Boston, Mass. 02116

Activities:

Please refer to the book, Aids to Psycholinguistic Teaching, by Bush and Giles, 1969

AUDITORY SEQUENTIAL MEMORY: Identification:

Auditory Sequential Memory is short term nonmeaningful memory, enabling the individual to remember a sequence of auditory stimuli long enough to repeat them.

Characteristics:

1. The child may be unable to remember his telephone number and street address
2. The child may be unable to learn jingles, poems or prayers
3. The child may be unable to repeat digits
4. The child may be poor in spelling and when given the spelling, he may not remember it long enough to write it down
5. The child often twists sounds and syllables of a word
6. The child may reverse number and letter sequences
7. The child may not remember instructions long enough to execute them
8. The child may be poor in phonics
9. The child may have had a delay in speech

Related Tests:

1. Benet
2. Wisc (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Allow the child to use visual clues as much as possible
2. Allow the child to write as he memorizes
3. Give the child short, one-concept sentences
4. Use many visual aids with this child
   (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials:

A.D.D. (Auditory Discrimination in Depth), 25-100, $49.50, Teaching Resources, Inc., 100 Boyston St., Boston, Mass. 02116

Activities:

Memory Training Games - Fifth Grade.

"Say It - Take It. Put a variety of objects on a table, the names of which contain sounds being studied by the child. Say a word , ut, for example. The child has thirty seconds to find an object on the table which has the ut sound in it. After he has found the object, he must repeat the sound given, then name the object. If the child is unable to find the item after thirty seconds, give him another chance or go to another word.

VISUAL SEQUENTIAL MEMORY: Identification:

Visual Sequential Memory refers to the ability to remember and to reproduce a sequence of visual stimuli. (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Characteristics:

1. The child may show reversals in reading and spelling, in writing his name, recognizing sight words, or in finding the right page number
2. In reading, the child will probably be quite dependent on phonics

Related Tests:

1. Knox Cubes Test
2. Monroe's Visual Memory Test (1932)
3. Ontario School Ability Exam
   (Kirk and Kirk, 1971)

Remediation:

1. Use the Kinesthetic method of teaching reading (Hirsch, 1963)
2. Allow the child to use auditory clues
3. Allow the child to trace when possible
4. Use many audio-visual aids
5. Allow the child to trace flash cards
   (Bush and Giles, 1969)

Materials:

Better Reading Foundation, 52 Vanderbilt Ave., N.Y., N.Y. 10017. Children's Digest and Humpty Dumpty periodicals. Grade 2. Highlights for Children, 2300 W. Fifth Ave., Columbus, Ohio 43212. A periodical. Grade 2. Visual Memory Cards - Cat. Nos. 181-182-183; each set $3.25; Developmental Learning Materials, 7740 N. Natchez Ave., Niles, Illinois 60648.

Activities:

Please refer to the book, Aids to Psycholinguistic Teaching, by Bush and Giles, 1969.

Guidelines for Parents and Teachers of Learning Disabilities Children -

1. Accept your child as he is. He's bright, alert and desires to do well. He's an individual of worth, let him know it.
2. Make life predictable each day. Structure or plan so that he can make predictions for himself
3. Be consistent with discipline, demands and daily routines
4. Assist in attempting to help your child be independent
5. Do not let this child manipulate the entire environment of the home or of the school:

   (a) Behavior - This child can dominate the entire family or schoolroom with inappropriate behavior;

(b) Homework - Is he using this as a tool to control his environment?

6. Remove pressures to achieve. Be aware of the differences between "pressure" and "support". You can be supportive without pressuring
7. Do not make long-range threats. Punishment needs to be immediate to the act
8. Present a united front to the child - father and mother as well as teacher and tutor
9. Don't "bug" him about school. If he's had a good day, you'll soon know; if not, he doesn't want to talk about it anyway
10. Do not compare children. Children within the home or classroom, each has a right to be himself.
11. Parents can assist his teacher where the need arises. Parents can read assignments in geography, history, etc., and provide educational trips for students
12. Give genuine praise for jobs well done. Unearned praise can be damaging. Assume that he wants to do well, assist where needs arise; then step aside and let him try for independence
13. Help the student learn to succeed. Make "succeeding" a habit
14. Do not take for granted that this child knows very simple concepts, such as "up" and "down","front" , behind", etc.
15. Just as teachers approach teaching situations with positive attitudes, parents should do likewise. Others have made it. So will you.
16. Make his life enjoyable. See that he is glad he has every day to live!

GLOSSARY

Agnosia: Impairment of a Receptive process
Apraxia: Impairment of an Expressive process
Aphasia: Inability to use language
Receptive Aphasia: (Sensory Aphasia): Inability to comprehend spoken language
Expressive Aphasia: (Motor Aphasia): Inability to speak
Anomia: Inability to appropriately name objects, persons or activities. Usually refers to inability to recall nouns.
Dysphasia: Partial inability to use language
Acalculia: Inability to calculate, manipulate number symbols or to do simple arithmetic.
Dyscalculia: Partial inability to calculate
Agraphia: Inability to write
Dysgraphia: Partial inability to write
Alexia: Inability to read written or printed language
Dyslexia: Partial inability to read written or printed language
Sense Modalities: Ways in which information is acquired through bodily senses

1. Visual: Sense of sight
2. Auditory: Sense of hearing
3. Tactile: (Haptic) Sense of touch
4. Kinesthetic: Sense of muscular movements
5. Olfactory: Sense of smell
6. Gustatory: Sense of taste

Expressive Process: (Expression, Encoding, Output) Refers to the expression of what we have received and integrated.

1. Gross Motor Expression: Walking, running, gestures, etc.
2. Fine Motor Expression: Drawing, copying, writing, etc.
3. Oral Expression: Speaking

SUGGESTED FILMS

Hickory Stick, 1961, 29 min., B/W, AEA. Shows how the teacher helps pupil build internalized controls by setting reasonable limits in the classroom.

I Just Don't Dig Him, 1969-70, Color, 11 min. A New Mental Health Board Film. Depicts interpersonal relationships between 14-year old boy and his father.

Inner World of Aphasia, 1969, Color, 24 min. Instructional Media Center, Michigan State University. Problems of aphasiac are presented in a dramatic manner. It illustrates the handicap of a speech and sign coordination disability in which everything has to be relearned.

Public School Program for L.D., 1970, Color, 16 min., Office of Educational Services, Region of Cook Co., Chicago Civic Center, Room 407, Clark and Washington St., Chicago, Ill. Actual public school self-contained classroom of young children with various neurological learning disorders.

Report Card, 1967, 12 min., A.S.U., Open-end film on defense of the grading system.

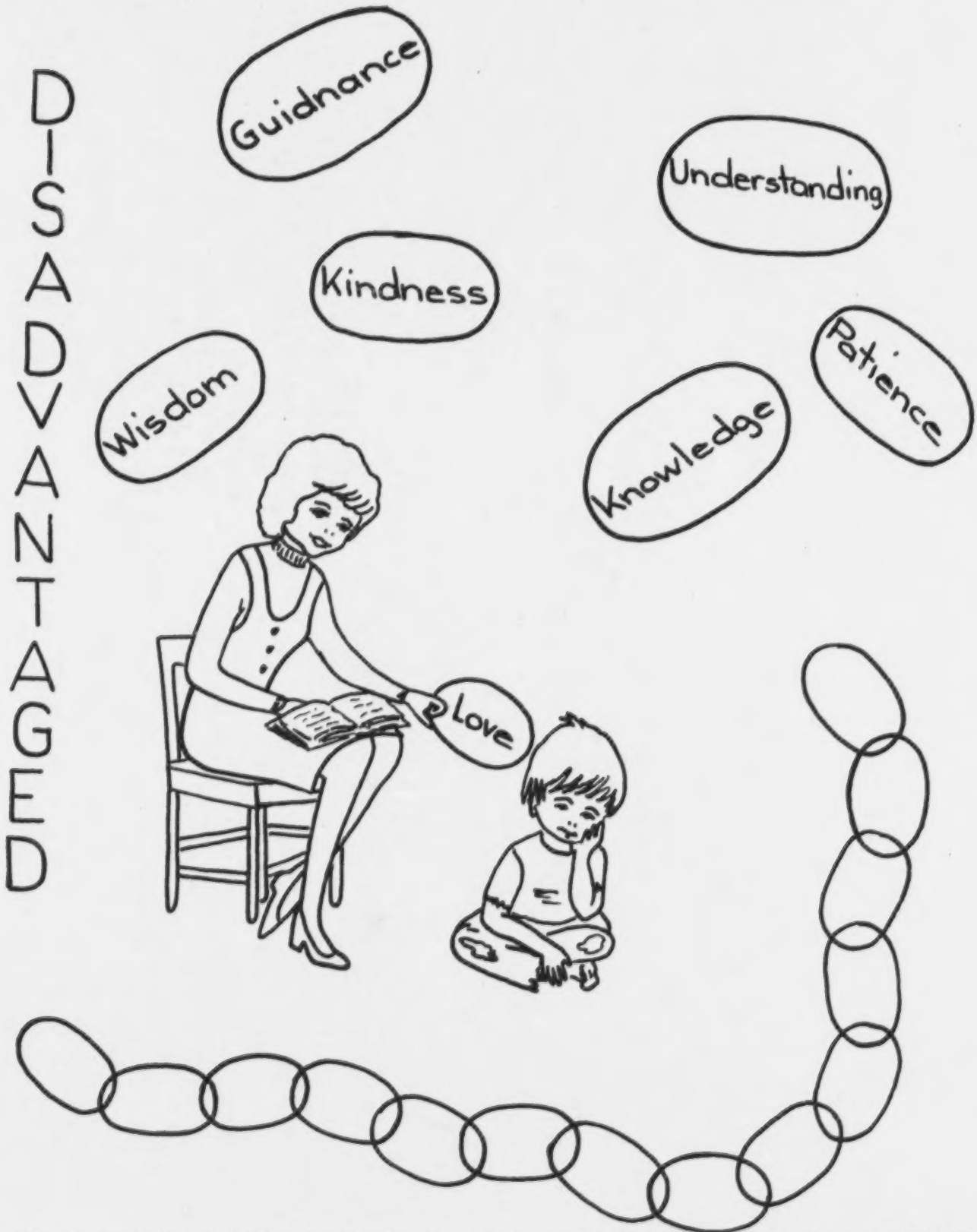
Thursdays' Children, HCA, 22 min., B/W, A.S.U. A skillful teacher works with a group of deaf children by artifically reproducing sounds after learning to lip read.

Walls, 10 ½ min., A.S.U. Open-end film about a high school teacher who tries to motivate his students in independent study.

Who Cares About Jamie, B/W, 16 min., Smart Family Foundations, 65 E.S. Water St., Chicago, Ill., Film Booking Dept. AV Center, A.S.U. Shows first grade boy and his problems at school and on the way home.

Help--- Add a link

DISADVANTAGED



THE DISADVANTAGED LEARNER

WHO ARE THE DISADVANTAGED?

The stage of being "disadvantaged" is a relative one covering a wide range of situations. In the introduction to his study on reading for the disadvantaged, Horn (1970) defines anyone as disadvantaged "who, for any reason, or reasons, is unable to realize his potential fully."

We tend to refer to those who grow up in an impoverished environment as the culturally disadvantaged. These children have been deprived of sensory, perceptual, and interpersonal stimulation which, for the majority of our culture, are a way of life.

Cultural disadvantage is not representative of any one racial or ethnic group; nor is it representative of any special locality. Culturally disadvantaged children can be found among migrants, in the ghetto schools, or in rural communities. These children may be Negro, American Indian, Mexican American, or Appalachian Caucasian.

Culturally disadvantaged children do not lack the mental capacity to achieve. Instead, they come to school with a particular set of educationally associated problems arising from their impoverished background.

Characteristics of the Disadvantaged

1. The disadvantaged child comes from a home which does not provide educational stimulus. The family is economically and educationally impoverished. His parents read little, verbalize little, and are not financially able to supply adequate learning materials such as books, magazines, newspapers, pencils and paper. There is no precedent for obtaining an education, as parents and grandparents had little formal education. Parents' despair and confusion is taken out on the child, thereby inspiring a sense of worthlessness and a feeling of little self-respect.

2. The disadvantaged child lacks proper physical and medical care. Neglected illness is often evident in addition to undernourishment and improper dental and eye care. The lack of parental supervision and sufficient sleeping facilities may mean the child may come to school tired, hungry and irritable.

3. The disadvantaged child has a very limited experiential background. He lacks curiosity about the world outside his neighborhood, and an appetite for new experiences. The background he possesses does not meet the expectations of the middle-class oriented curriculum of his school.

4. The disadvantaged child's language skills are linguistically handicapped. The extent of the vocabulary to which the child is exposed is meager and the parent does not have time to read and talk to the child. Left to his own devices and often having little contact with the English language -- in particular its standard dialects, the child is said to speak non-standard English. A number of Mexican-American, Indian, and Puerto-Rican children have the further disadvantage of not speaking English.

5. The disadvantaged child possesses inferior auditory and visual discrimination skills. Because of these problems, he demonstrates a poor attention span and has difficulty following directions. The child is slow at cognitive tasks and learns more readily through a concrete physical approach.

6. The disadvantaged child has a feeling of rejection by society. His poor self-concept tends to foster attitudes of failure. These children are not goal-oriented. They lack the security of a stable home. These feelings are often manifested in unruly behavior.

Recommendations for Educating the Disadvantaged

Success in the education of the disadvantaged requires the development of total instructional systems that bring together competent teachers, effective instructional technology and curriculum materials that are relevant to the interest and needs of the disadvantaged learners. The programs designed for the disadvantaged learners should differ from programs for middle class children only in structure and approach, not goals.

The needs of the disadvantaged child are varied and they include more than academic knowledge, for this child comes to school psychologically handicapped, a factor which impedes learning. Thereby, the program planned for the disadvantaged must consider psychological as well as curricular needs.

Objectives for Disadvantaged Programs

The objective of any program of education for the disadvantaged must be cognizant of the child's need to develop:

1. Language skills: Thinking, listening, speaking, writing and reading
2. A feeling of personal worth, confidence in his ability to succeed; a fear of failure should be eliminated.
3. Recognition of school as pleasant and learning as pleasurable
4. Enthusiasm and interest in the environment; wide experiential background
5. Interest in others and respect for them; ability to work and play with others.

The basic needs of food, clothing, health and affection must be satisfied if school experience is to have real meaning.

What the School Should Do

Some project activities that school systems should undertake for the education of the disadvantaged are mentioned below.

1. Pre-school programs should be offered as an antidote for cultural restriction.
2. Special classes should be taught by selected teachers and the class size should be relatively small. These classes utilize small group and individual special help techniques.
3. Materials for instruction should include many reading materials including easy-to-read books, language experience stories using the child's own words, and materials which appeal to the physical and cultural background of these students.
4. Summer school or summer enrichment programs, particularly in reading and arithmetic, tend to lessen the academic recession which generally occurs during the typical inner city summer.
5. Guidance provides strategically placed stimuli for assisting, altering, accelerating or adjusting the life motion and direction of the individual (Peters, 1960)
6. The practice of in-service education allows the teacher time to develop theory and practice which has been designed to improve the instruction of the disadvantaged child.
7. Special training for prospective teachers of the disadvantaged, such as internship opportunity for college juniors, should be offered in connection with the college program.
8. Home visitors should be available to evaluate the home situation so as to provide the teachers with insights and understandings of the problems faced by the children from the disadvantaged homes.
9. The school must involve parents in order that they can develop an understanding of the importance of education and so provide support and reinforcement for the learning tasks of the school.
10. The school should be aware of other compensatory programs. For example, there are programs operated on funds which are budgeted exclusively for the improvement of the instruction of disadvantaged children. There should be someone in the school who is knowledgeable of these Title moneys in order that the funds can be taken advantage of.

What the Teachers Should Do

According to Tiedt and Tiedt (1967), our focus as teachers is not on the social problem of deprivation, but on helping the child who is the victim of the deprivation or who is disadvantaged.

The following attributes are necessary for the teacher of the disadvantaged:

1. He must have a desire and enthusiasm for working with the disadvantaged.
2. He must be exposed to a broad range of social sciences and their contributions and relation. The child's problems must be the teacher's main interest.
3. He must be liberal minded and willing to work in the face of adversity, to help students who need help but often will show little "thanks."
4. He must be an innovator rather than a follower.
5. He must be exposed to a wide range of environments both social and educational.
6. He must be willing to accept only minimal success and try to maintain a positive attitude.

7. He must be willing to become a student of the sub-culture he will be working in.
8. He must empathize with his students.

According to Dr. Stephen J. Wright (1970), "the absolutely essential ingredient for effective teaching of the disadvantaged is respect for the child and a genuine belief in his ability to learn."

THERE'S A NEW YOU COMING

FAILURE

SUCCESS

THE SLOW LEARNER

INTRODUCTION

Between the children who are able to achieve at an average rate and those who are cared for in the special education program, there are some children who, for one reason or another, are less successful academically than the average child.

These are the children who need extra pushes, extra tugs, and multiple exposures. They must have special attention, extra pats, extra smiles, and patient concern from the teacher. They need more motivation and extra rewards. They are a very important part of the student body, however, because with proper training these children can develop into proud, successful adults and can take responsible positions in the community.

Characteristics

Slow learners come in all shapes and sizes with varied physical, emotional, and developmental characteristics. They are capable of learning, but their problems must be recognized so that their needs can be met, in order that they may develop to the extent of their individual abilities. Most school programs are not geared to meet the intellectual difficulties encountered by the slow learner. However, today's "open concept" classrooms offer much for this child, because it is set up to meet individual needs at their own rate of progress. We must reduce the pressures placed upon these children.

Exactly who are the slow learners? They are the ones we watch year after year struggling, experiencing failure and frustration. They are the ones with whom our patience wears thin because we tend to assume that"they just aren't trying." These are the children who require special attention and consideration, and more concentrated and individualized supervision and guidance.

Often they are the ones who score between 70 and 90 I.Q. scales, and who do not learn as rapidly as their peers of the same chronological age.

There are many terms used to label the slow learner, according to a study edited by Joseph Roucek (1969). They are:

1. Unteachable
2. Underachiever
3. Misguided
4. Misdirected
5. Unhappy
6. Unmotivated
7. Underprivileged
8. Uncoordinated
9. Sub-normal
10. Slow poke
11. Retarded
12. Maladjusted
13. Disinterested Child
14. Drop out
15. Disturbed Child
16. Disabled
17. Discontented
18. Disadvantaged
19. Deprived
20. Defective Learner
21. Culturally Deprived
22. Bored
23. Backward
24. Emotionally Deprived
25. Insufficient Re-enforcement
26. Illiterate
27. Lazy
28. Low Scorer
29. Low I.Q.
30. Misbehaver

These are only a few. Whether these are merely descriptive terms or characteristic, they give us some insight to the cause of a slow learner. They force us to realize the disadvantages many children experience.

According to a study by M. Smith (1954), we can compare the mind of a slow learner to an engine by saying they have a slower dynamo than the average child, but it is a good dynamo. These children are not mentally deranged or incompetent. They do, however, need specialized methods and techniques and a program suited to their needs. This program should be realistic, meaningful and representative of the academic work which will equip them to handle their daily tasks. It should include, in junior high school, vocational training in home economics and shop in addition to academic subjects, physical education, and character building. In senior high school it should include preparation for job training as well as a continuation in the junior high school subjects.

A study report by O. Johnson (1964) tells us that slow learners compose the largest group of mentally retarded persons. Since they are a very large group and since they do not deviate as markedly

from the average as do the other groups of mentally retarded children, special educational provisions have not been considered essential. They do provide one of the largest and most intense, continuing problems facing the general classroom teacher.

A study from the Hawaii Department of Public Instruction (1946, 1953) shows that the real point of difference with the normal child and the slow learner is his rate of mental development:

1. He is less alert than the normal child.
2. He is less observant than the normal child.
3. He is less able to associate ideas and so to form new concepts or to make generalizations.
4. He is less able to form valid judgments and to act upon them.
5. He is less confident and self-reliant.
6. He is less apt to apply self-criticism.
7. He is less ready to adjust comfortably and happily to new situations.

As a result, we find him more dependent upon guidance in exploring his own and other environments. He needs the handling, seeing, doing, going activities of first hand experiences for forming new concepts. He needs audio-visual aids as a substitute for first hand experiences. He must have samples, models and the like to handle, take apart and examine. He needs pictures portraying the same things or the same idea in many different settings. He needs pictures and simple line drawings to refer to and from which to copy.

CREATIVE COMMUNICATION

Everyone is eager to communicate and the slow learner is no exception. The language skills are not as highly developed when he enters school. When the child first raises his hand to tell his teacher his name, he has communicated. When a child writes his name to label a picture or object as his alone, he has communicated a concept of identification.

I prefer to turn creative writing into creative communication, for written or oral, they are both means to the same goal. The major difference is that with the slow learners all assignments should be functional and have the same values but should be projected over a longer period of time with more assistance.

The first basic step of developing creative communication skills is to help a child realize he has good ideas to express. After having children tell you their thoughts a new change would be suing a tape recorder. Later you or an older student putting it on paper can give a child a visible piece of work to keep. Because of poor hand and eye coordination and poor spelling, a tape recorder should play an important part in creative communication even through the upper grades. Anyone can express ideas with more ease orally.

In order to help a student develop a pattern for creative communications, first discuss the data with the student and how it relates to him. As time passes and skills increase, strive for more details. Find ways the student can preview his task of communication.

Secondly, help the student get the ideas in sequence. As the student reaches the point of first writing his ideas on paper, I recommend having vocabulary related to the material or subject handy.

After the student has formulated his communication on paper or tape, help him reflect on his ideas. Check for comprehension of his own ideas. Seeing that you understand his message is the best positive reinforcement you can offer. This is tremendous stimulus for more creative communication. Don't expect Kipling, just slow steady progress of self expression is your goal.

WAYS OF REPORTING TO PARENTS

The Beginning of the Year

_____ is always willing to help and is a very good citizen. Although she tries hard, the work is quite difficult for her. I would suggest you read with her in your spare time. It may help her to gain self-confidence.

_____ is good-natured and cooperative. She started slowly in gaining the skills necessary for reading; and although her progress is steady, she has not reached the level of achievement expected at this time in the year. Extra help at home in reading might be helpful. I'd like you to come in for a conference if possible.

_____ is a fine child. He is always polite and cooperative. Although he is making steady progress in his schoolwork, he has been unable to complete the work expected of the children at this time of the year. I am concerned as to his achievement by the end of the year.

Thanks for our recent conference. As we discussed, _____'s work is below grade level. Concentration and development of effective study habits has been very hard for him. He seems more interested in school now. Please continue to give him encouragement.

_____ tries hard to please in school, and I believe she is doing the best she can. I would like to have a conference with you as soon as possible concerning _____'s academic progress.

Mid-Year

I am concerned about _____'s progress in ___ grade. The overall picture is not good. Her work habits and social growth, as well as most of her basic subjects, are below grade level. Will you call the office to make an appointment for a conference?

_____'s enthusiasm for all activities certainly perks up our class. It is hard for him to remember words, however, and it may take him two years to complete the ___ grade reading program. Please feel free to come in to discuss this card with me at any time.

I am pleased to report _____'s learning to follow directions. He is also carrying out assignments much more independently. He seems to enjoy working with a group now and is expressing himself freely. He has been rather slow in acquiring ___ grade skills, and it is possible it may take him more than one year to complete ___ grade work. I would be glad to talk with you about _____.

End of the Year

_____ needs to mature much more socially in order to feel at ease with his peers. I am concerned as to whether his achievement will be high enough at the end of the year to go on to ___ grade.

I have enjoyed working with _____ this year. She has shown growth in reading and math, but she is not ready for success at the ___ grade level. I feel that spending another year in ___ grade will strengthen her academic foundation.

_____ has matured this year, academically and socially. She still needs strengthening in reading. She would benefit from reading many library books this summer.

CLASSROOM EXPERIENCES FOR THE SLOW LEARNER

Every boy and girl has a right to the full happiness of day-to-day success in growing up. He must repeatedly know the satisfaction of making his own best contribution with other individuals, each of whom is making his own contribution toward creating something, producing something or accomplishing a common goal together. Activities that will help reach this objective are:

1. Children may like to keep a scrapbook of their work and picture stories.

2. Drills designed as games to make learning fun.

3. Math games using attribute blocks, objects for counting, number songs and exercises.

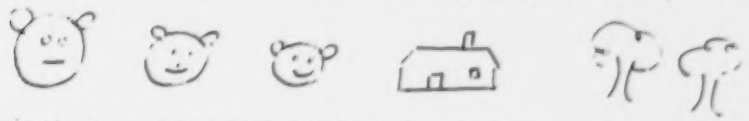
4. Individual peg boards to give child experiences in design number work.

5. Individual flannel boards. Child works with alphabet and pictures individually to learn the alphabet, and then to make words and sentences.

6. Art activities such as clay, painting, etc., which afford opportunities to work with their hands.

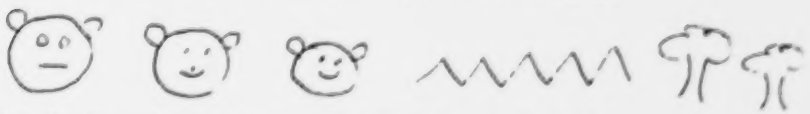
7. Potatoe printing and puppets. (In using these with the slow learner, the teacher should provide a model to motivate the children and also to help her anticipate the manipulative difficulties that might arise.)

8. Picture writing is a fascination to all children, and the beginning writer should experience fun and success in writing a story this way. A sample of this follows:



Once there were three bears who lived in a little house in the wood.

One day mother bear made porridge and put it on the table.



Then the three bears went out for a walk in the woods. (etc.

9. Motion songs such as the following provide large amounts of movement, coordination, fun and success for the slow learner. This particular song can be used in helping the slow learner succeed in his first writing activities in the beginning of the first grade. (This is to help with the formation of all circle letters.)

The Magic Circle
(Tune: Are You Sleeping)

1. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
Round and around.
Round and around.
What have we here?
What have we here?

2. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
Make an open window.
Make an open window.
What have we here?
What have we here?

3. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
Put a stick in the front.
Put a stick in the front.
What have we here?
What have we here:

4. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
First you make a long stick.
First you make a long stick.
What have we here?
What have we here?

5. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
Put a little stick on.
Put a little stick on.
What did we make?
What did we make?

6. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
Make a tall stick close behind.
Make a tall stick close behind.
What have we here?
What have we here?

7. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
Make a nice long tail.
Make a nice long tail.
What have we here?
What have we here?

8. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
Make an open window.
Draw a line to it.
What have we here?
What have we here?

9. Magic circle.
Magic circle.
Here we go.
Here we go.
Make a long stick with a hook.
Make a long stick with a hook.
What have we here?
What have we here?

SPELLING

The spelling program for slow learners contains no methodological specialities. It should be thought of as a necessary aid to written English, not as a separate subject. The real challenge to learn to spell is, "What words must I be able to spell in order to carry my work?" or, "How often can I make use of the words I am learning to spell?" Spelling should not be taught until the child has some foundation of reading experience.

Spelling instructions must be systematic and frequent, allowing a number of opportunities for repetition. Student involvement in spelling is important and may be gained by self-competition (word lists and common error notebooks) or through class competition (spelling games, spelling contests.)

The understanding and proper use of spelling words should be incorporated into each spelling lesson. Since the slow student tends to forget quickly what he does not use, the spelling program should provide many opportunities for application and review of the words learned. In addition to drawing words from the child's spoken vocabulary, the teacher should include spelling words that the child will need in other subjects.

Spelling is primarily a visual motor-visual memory activity with the addition of the knowledge of some spelling principles. Only when spelling is introduced must a child know his alphabet and be able to recognize and reproduce specific letters by name. It becomes necessary at this time in order that he can organize the letters into words.

Visual recognition of a word often enables the writer to wonder whether or not it "looks right." A knowledge of syllabication, word analysis, prefixes, suffixes is also an important aid in spelling.

The teacher should be on her guard against teaching the unusual word that the child needs only for a special occasion or a current activity.

Teaching spelling requires attention to the facts that spelling involves motor activity and the child must attend closely to writing the words he learns. The following is an outline of teaching directions to help the child cultivate sound spelling habits.

1. Look at the word and say it distinctly by syllables.
2. Spell it by syllables.
3. Close your eyes and try to see each syllable as you say it.
4. Open your eyes to see if it is right.
5. If not, pronounce it in syllables. Spell it letter by letter. Try again.
6. When correct, write the word.
7. Look again to see if you have it right.
8. Write the word three times without copying from yourself.

MATHEMATICS

Mathematics is the most logical of all subjects that we teach, even so, it need not be dull or dismal for the slow learner. An ingenious teacher can make it entertaining and fun. The slow learner can certainly learn basic mathematics. The teacher can contribute much by being understanding, sympathetic, objective, and experimentally minded.

It is important that we use diagnostic testing to determine which skills are needed and help the teacher plan a curriculum for each child. A child must know the fundamentals before he can advance. Use the "common-sense" approach as a logical way to handle the learning problems. No one method is the best, but one method may be better for one particular child. Roucek gives two points to keep in mind when planning a curriculum for the slow learner: The knowledge acquired should be socially useful to the student, and the methods employed should be adapted to his mental level. The teacher should introduce concepts that students can grasp and be able to use, stress associations, and teach basic ideas. Slow learners need a great deal of repetition. This can be done by turning drills into contests, games, puzzles, and classroom decorations. The teacher should keep the assignments small and provide supervised study.

Karlin and Berger stress the need of work relating to the child's life. Each child must be taught how to handle money, the elements of time, measurements, sizes, consumer education, and personal interests.

Children should be taught a vocabulary relating to their mathematics. Roucek suggests the following Illinois plan that stresses such terms as: Big-little, day-night, more-less, tall-short, large-small, today-tomorrow-yesterday, slow-fast, morning-afternoon-evening.

Basic to all of this is the idea of relating the teaching to the slow learner's needs, to his interests, and to stimulate him to think and to be interested in, rather than afraid of, mathematics.

FIND ME
PUBLIC SCHOOLS
I AM GIFTED
SI SE PUEDE!

THE GIFTED CHILD

INTRODUCTION

Never before in our history have we stood in need of intelligence, imagination and courage, as now. The challenge is greater than in any other generation. We believe in equality before the law, equal political suffrage and in equality of opportunity. Yet, for the individual, there is a basis need for self-realization and self-satisfaction.

We need the abilities of our brightest persons for more than material progress. In our effort to help people learn to live in amity and peace, we need spiritual guidance and courageous leadership-offered by talented men and women equipped through education to find solutions to problems old and new. We need brilliance in diplomacy and human relationships. We need the resourcefulness and the imagination of the gifted to create a better world. (Witty, 1965)

The authors have organized the following material from an educational point of view, drawing knowledge from various authorities, hoping to stimulate the imagination and challenge the "status quo". It is desirable that the reader not be intimidated by the complexity of the subject of the gifted child but rather be enlightened and motivated to explore new ideas of helping him.

EDUCATIONAL HISTORY

Plato (429 B.C.), and Aristotle (384 B.C.), represent to modern times the whole compass of Greek philosophy. Plato was talking about gifted children when he said,

> "We must watch them from their youths upwards and make them perform actions in which they are most likely to forget or to be deceived, and he who remembers and is not deceived is to be selected, and he who fails in the trial is to be rejected, that will be the way." (Abraham, 1958)

Records of early philosophers have enabled others who are interested in the education of children to expand their knowledge. During these earlier centuries the gifted child was admired, held in awe and often too much was expected of him. The void of information during these centuries is due to the fact that observations were not recorded.

SOCIOLOGICAL INFLUENCES

Today we are witnessing a revolution toward men and women of high ability and advanced learning. The demand for highly trained talent is affected by international crises. We must make maximum use of present talent.

One of the main goals that we still have not achieved is full equality of opportunity. Jefferson wrote, "Geniuses will be raked from the rubbish." (Gardner, 1961). Proverty is usually complicated with other factors such as "food money", which restricts pursuit of full achievement. Yet it would be wrong to say that stratification of educational opportunity is dominant, however, it does exist. But victories in this area have been achieved. We see individual curiosity, inner drive, and ambition as breaking these barriers.

When a society gives up hereditary stratification, there are two ways to deal with individual differences in ability and performance:

1. Protect slow runners and curb the swift (equalitarianism)
2. Competitive performance or "let the best man win."

These two are hard to live with in a daily round of existence. (Gardner, 1961)

Dr. Abraham believes that our greatest resource is our gifted children. He is quoted as saying, "It is coming to be recognized that the electronic and atomic age has little place for hordes of men with strong backs and weak minds, and equal numbers of women with defective intellects, but great reproductive capacity and proclivity." (Family Life, 1958)

DEFINITION

DeHann and Havighurst define the gifted child as one "who is superior in some ability that can make him an outstanding contributor to the welfare of, and quality of living, in society.

The American Association for Gifted Children defines the gifted individual as "a person whose performance in any line of socially useful endeavor is consistently superior."

IDENTIFICATION

Two general approaches to identification are possible. The first is through the use of standardized tests and the second is through the use of observation. Some educators prefer one approach over the other, but in general it seems the best results are obtained from a maximum use of both.

TESTING

There are several types of standardized tests that can be used, and all, or as many as possible, should be used to get the over-all picture of the child.

1. General intelligence tests
2. Differential aptitude tests
3. Individual intelligence tests
4. Tests of specialized aptitudes
5. Identifying scientific ability
6. Interest inventories
7. Achievement tests
8. Personality tests

"Now a new kind of intelligence test for children is in the making at the University of Montreal's Institute of Psychology. Based on the theories of the eminent Swiss psychologist, Jean Piaget, it will emphasize the quality of children's reasoning, rather than a tabulation of right and wrong answers." (Psychology Today, June 1972)

Aptitudes in the fine arts can best be tested by a method which combines some features of tests and some aspects of personal observations. This method consists in obtaining from the children a "work sample" that is rated by a panel of expert judges. The work sample should be obtained and rated under standardized conditions. The intent of the procedures is to identify the ten percent most talented pupils in each of the following areas:

1. Artistic ability
2. Creative writing ability
3. Musical aptitude
4. Dramatic talent
5. Creative rhythms
6. Mechanical aptitude
7. Social leadership ability

The role of human observation and judgment in screening and selecting gifted children is a major one. This should involve the observations of teachers, parents, classmates and sometimes other adults in the community. We should look for these signs:

1. Size of vocabulary and accurate use of words
2. Ability to make generalizations
3. Abstract thinking
4. Insight into problems
5. Reasoning
6. Problem solving
7. Speed of learning ...speed of completing intellectual tasks
8. Persistence
9. Memory
10. Foresight
11. Humor and wit
12. Range of interests and curiosity
13. Alertness and keenness of observation
14. Initiative
15. Creative ability
16. Critical judgment
17. Desire to be of service

(Title, "Bright & Gifted Child)

In trying to identify the gifted child one or more of the above mentioned signs may be used. Gardner postulates that the motivated student seeks out the situations in which he can learn, whereas the apathetic student has to be coerced into a learning situation. Schools should meet demands of the nature of childhood, and not make demands. (Gardner, 1961)

While an I.Q. test can determine a child's general capacity, it does not indicate in what direction his giftedness or mental limitations reach, nor does it necessarily show his capacity for various academic areas. (Abraham, 1958)

Intellectually superior children tend to be superior in a number of ways that are not closely related to intellectual performance. In general they tend to be larger, healthier, happier, and have more extensive interests and hobbies than their normal peers. They particularly enjoy reading and develop this skill rather early and with a minimum of difficulty. Their educational achievement tends to be uniformly high, and they engage in extracurricular activities rather extensively. The gifted tend to have better educated parents than the average, and to come from better socio-economic backgrounds and to have parents of the higher occupational levels. (Telford and Sawrey, 1967)

Ruth Strang says, "the creative spirit flourishes in an atmosphere of positive expectancy - one in which the parent or teacher focuses on what the child can do, not what he can't. Too many "don'ts" discourage the child from trying new and spontaneous ways of doing things." (Maisel, Saylor, Strang, Vander Werf and Witty)

IDENTIFICATION OF THE GIFTED AMONG MINORITY GROUPS

No race, religion or socio-economic group has a monopoly on either intelligence or stupidity. Alison Davis and others have been hard at work on "culture free" intelligence tests which presumably will show more accurately the intelligence of most or all children. (Abraham, 1958) The tasks of meeting special needs of talented pupils is challenging under any circumstances. This is particularly true in rural areas. Here, in the small schools, there are relatively few pupils in the talented end of the spectrum of abilities, which makes grouping in an individual school for special purposes frequently impossible (French, 1959)

Girls, and children from low socio-economic status, form the two largest groups of persons with potentially high ability whose environment has not provided stimulation for the development of their talents. Children from low-status families fail to develop their ability because of lack of opportunity and stimulation, commencing with the earliest years. Their families do not encourage them to read, to learn music, to draw pictures, to develop scientific hobbies, or to do any of the things that can bring budding talent to flow. (French, 1959)

The modern view is that a large amount of potential ability remains underdeveloped because of lack of environmental stimulation and most of this underdeveloped ability is to be found in people of lower socio-economic status and in women of all social levels. (French, 1959)

Analysis of the case records of a group of Black children tested on the Standford-Binet at above 160 indicated that these children during the early years of their development, at least, mainfest the same characteristics as do other very high I.Q. children: originality of expression, creative ability, and surpassing performance in school subjects. (French, 1959)

It is of some significance that all these children, were found in Northern or border-state cities. Whether the fact that no children with this development have been found in Southern cities is due to lack of environmental opportunity and stimulation, or merely lack of identification, is not surely known. (French, 1959)

Also the abstract mental tests that contribute to psychometric intelligence do not measure the factors of personality and motivation that largely determine success in life. (French, 1959)

The data of this article bring into sharp focus the limitations that our society places on the development of the gifted Black. These superior deviates are nurtured in a culture in which racial inferiority of the Black is a basic assumption. Consequently they will typically experience throughout their lives educational, social and occupational restrictions that must inevitably affect motivation and achievement. (French, 1959)

The task of meeting the special needs of talented pupils is challenging under any circumstances. This is particularly true in rural areas.

One of the most outstanding developments in the field of the gifted is associated with a broad concept of giftedness. There is a concern today for studying children whose mental ability, although superior may not be revealed by an intelligence test. (Witty, 1965)

CHARACTERISTICS OF TEACHERS

The following characteristics were compiled after observing teachers who have worked with gifted children. (De Hann and Havighurst, 1957)

"They are flexible and creative persons who recognize talent and adapt their program to the needs and abilities of the child." They are concerned about individual differences and helping the total child develop, not merely in intellectual growth. They are resourceful in developing teaching techniques and easily change plans for interests which develop in class while weaving in material which still needs to be taught.

ENRICHMENT

Enrichment is a matter of quality, not quantity. The learning situation should provide tasks that are a little more complex and advanced than those the child has already known.(De Haan and Havighurst, 1957)

Enrichment is the process that takes place when a child's understanding of a topic or concept is broadened and deepened beyond that usually considered normal for his grade and age. (Lewis, 1961)

Enrichment must, in addition to providing additional knowledges and skills, give children an opportunity to explore some of their special interests. It must provide opportunity for them to give creative expression to their talents. It is also providing opportunities to develop a sense of social responsibility, skill in critical thinking and qualities necessary for leadership. Enrichment must be designed to meet the needs of the individual child.

Enrichment activities are those learning experiences that broaden the understandings or processes in a given subject area. The pupil should be given increased power to deal with more difficult aspects by encouraging experimentation and exploration. There should be opportunities to relate what is being learned to other fields and to everyday life experiences. (Klausmeier, 1962)

Enriching the everyday program provides the bright child with more opportunities for personality growth and for working and sharing with others.

He needs the time to develop to the fullest the specific gift, for his satisfaction and his contribution to society. He must be able to fill his place as a citizen, and to become a member of the social group.

The enrichment program should give the gifted a responsibility of independent work, stressing initiative and originality and high standards of accomplishment.

CREATIVITY

The creative child has imagination, purpose, is open to experience, mulls over many things, lives fully in the present, and is spontaneous. (Maisel and others)

Classrooms should be set up with exciting interest centers so that the imagination and originality of all are stimulated. The gifted child is the one who makes advances for society and it is creative thinking that moves the world ahead in science, in government, in literature, and in the arts, as well as in improvements of the smaller affairs of daily living.

VARIETIES OF ENRICHMENT

Creative writing or art may be inspired by many things. An atmosphere of freedom and supportive guidance is a necessity. The teacher must stimulate divergent thinking.

The most common form of enrichment, which can be used by every teacher, is reading. Keeping reading logs, having background materials for stories, providing book parties, with each child representing a character from the chosen book are but a few of the ways gifted children will enjoy the adventures of reading.

Hobbies and collections can provide much stimulation and knowledge. Stamps can aid in the learning of history and geography, as well as the processes of engraving and printing.

Coins, mineral specimens, weed seeds, pressed flowers, and insect specimens can lead to in depth research and writing of information concerning these collections.

Model airplanes, photography, woodwork, beadwork, shell work, brass-hammering, or leathercraft improve coordination, as well as provide training in independent work. The gifted can perform the task, and find out much information relating to the use and origin of these items.

Clubs, plays, speaking, and conducting meetings, are some of the ways an energetic gifted child may be challenged. Potential leaders can begin early development by working in the classroom with his fellow students.

Newspapers, radio stories, and television productions may be to the liking of the more advanced gifted children.

METHODS OF ENRICHMENT

These three methods are widely used to provide enrichment: Acceleration, sectioning or grouping, and enrichment within the regular school program (Klausmeier, 1962)

Acceleration means that students finish twelve grades in less than twelve school years, or finishing high school in less than twelve years they receive college credits which permit them to complete the requirements for a degree in less than four years.

Acceleration should be considered only after a careful study has been made of each child. This should include estimates of physical, mental, and educational growth, and the emotional stability and the social maturity for the child.

Grouping has been used quite widely, but poses a problem in the numbers of children available for all groups.

In the Cleveland, Ohio Major Work Program, the pupils do most of their work in the special classes, but music, art, and physical education is performed with the rest of their age group. About twenty pupils to the class permits more individualizing of instruction.

ACTIVITIES

Research activities may be given in challenging questions and assignments in the areas of science, social studies, literature, and arithmetic. Extended reading may be done, including varied and more difficult materials, as magazine articles, editorials, news items, feature columns, historical and scientific materials. Use of the public library, field trips to museums, governmental agencies, business and industry are ways of enriching knowledge. Projecting research data onto maps, charts and graphs gives new experiences.

Creative projects as original writings, poems, plays, stories, radio skits may appeal to some. Dramatic activities like puppet shows and plays give vent to creativity. Science projects and displays may appeal to the science oriented student. Construction activities to follow research are meaningful.

Experiments in science and mathematics create desire for more knowledge.

Leadership opportunities can be provided by student government, athletic squads and teams.

Special talents may be used in instrumental music classes, the school orchestra, and chorus. Those with dramatic and dance talents should be provided with opportunities to display them.

SOME RESOURCES FOR ENRICHMENT

Gardner, Martin. The Scientific American Book of Mathematical Puzzles and Diversions. Simon & Schuster. $1.45

Goddard Space Flight Center, NASA, Office of Education.

What's Up There? Supt. of Documents, U.S. Govt. Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402 $1.00

Heller, Bruce & Co., Book of Mathematics Puzzlers. 1 Wall St., N.Y., N.Y. 10005 (Free)

Johnson, Donovan A. , Games for Learning Mathematics. , J. Weston Walch. $1.00

American Forests., 919 17th St., N.W. Washington, D.C.

Request publication lists from:

Contemporary Press, Box 1524, San Jose, California
Fearon Publishers, Inc., 828 Valencia Street, San Francisco, California
Perceptive publishing Co., 2795½ Central Blvd., Eugene, Oregon
Teachers Practical Press., 47 Frank Street, Valley Stream, Long Island, New York

Diagram showing how use of portable partitions can make any classroom a challenge to the gifted child.

CONCLUSION

We cannot afford to lose any gifted or talented child. They are one of our most precious natural resources. The child who is both intelligent and creative remains society's most valuable resource. When we learn to work with him instead of against him his talents may reward us in ways beyond our ability to imagine. (Victor and Mildred Goertzel, 1962)

In an effort to help their child, many parents overschedule the child's time. Teachers and parents should remember that the gifted child is first of all a child and should have a chance at the joys of childhood. When his day is so crowded with planned activities and supervision, little or no time is left to think, to dream, to play, or to wander about with his own thoughts. The gifted child needs time for such things as much as any child, perhaps more. (Oettinger, 1958)

For some adults, discovering hidden gifts in children will demand a change in personality; for self-effacement in an adult is what draws the child out. Children think about the world, and come to worthy conclusions - their own. They think about themselves and those around them, and come to worthy conclusions - their own. The parent who values these judgments as stepping stones to higher judgments will have the enjoyment of seeing unsuspected gifts appear and grow. It is hard to learn to listen, even to one's own children, but the fascination of the game is worth every effort. (Mearns, 1955)

"In my school and in many I know, it is up to the classroom teacher to identify the bright and gifted children and to plan their programs. In the past, I didn't go as far as I might. I was afraid of going over their heads - and my own! Now I think, "The sky is the limit." I will not let lack of knowledge on my part interfere with my attempts to challenge these youngsters, to enrich their studies, and to instigate research. I'll learn with them - and tell them so!

-- A Teacher.

GENERALIZATIONS

There is nothing so unequal as the equal treatment of unequals.

I.Q. test results show the relationship of a child's mental and chronological age.

There are parents who don't know they have a gifted child.

Often a child's work is judged foolishly by adult standards.

No single method of teaching is necessarily best for all gifted children.

No particular school or classroom organization will meet all the needs of all the children.

No clear-cut personality type makes the best teacher for the gifted.

Challenge and stimulation are needed to help bring a gifted child closer to his potential.

Modesty and humility are not necessarily natural ingredients of the talented child.

If you are unusually gifted in intelligence, you owe it to yourself and the world to make the most of it.

The growing field of adult education offers numerous new challenges.

DEAF
HUMOR
INFORMATION
IDEAS
IDEAS
WORDS
WORDS
WORDS
FRIENDSHIP
ENVIRONMENT CLUES
MUSIC

INTRODUCTION

This report is primarily concerned with the emotional and intellectual factors of profound hearing loss. Other aspects of hearing disorders with statistical facts, pathological classifications, etiology, and physical characteristics may be readily found in other syllibi and textbooks and should be pursued.

Intellectual Aspects

The main problem is the lack of auditory input. The auditory channel is primary in orientation and language development. Without hearing the continual scanning of the environment must come through the other senses - vibrations, odors, and sight. Consequently, a deaf person must focus his sight around his environment to detect those changes most of us pick up by sound - and without a necessary shift of attention. His world is thus more threatening and the energy needed to maintain equilibrium is greater.

Language development is the major intellectual area that the deaf have trouble with. Because conceptualization and abstraction are largely dependent on language, a deaf person's development in those areas is delayed and he often comes to depend on other approaches and splinter skills that make the full use of language even harder.

Even as the deaf person gains a facility with language, he has a problem fully understanding it as much of the subtleties and relationships between words are missed. Imagine, for instance, the meaning of a noun like "dog" to a deaf person lacking the experience of the sounds of dogs. Beyond this difficulty with nouns language becomes increasingly more difficult to master. Studies of the deaf reveal increasing difficulty with verbs, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adjectives and adverbs in that order. The idiomatic expression, puns and metaphors are even more difficult and remain beyond most of the deaf. Communication skills then, must be centered on a direct approach and emphasized even more than with other children. The fact of hardship is no excuse for despair.

Emotional Development

While the deaf generally learn to care for themselves, their personality development, like their intellectual development, is delayed in relation to others. One result of this delay is that the deaf adult is rarely able to take on the full responsibility of caring for others, especially progency, even though he can care for himself. The primary reason for this lack of full maturity is probably the difficulty the deaf have in their general development.

1. Their social development is generally delayed, and
2. The difficulty of coping with the many problems facing them does not leave enough energy to go beyond their own needs.

Other than this, the deaf need not be considered more handicapped emotionally than their peers.

Education

With language being the major problem faced by the deaf, its teaching is of paramount importance to them. There are two approaches to the language problem:

1. Speech-reading
2. Sign language

Speech reading has the advantage of letting the deaf comprehend what talking people are saying, while sign language is more easily acquired and is used for inter-communication between the deaf. Either type of language may be combined with reading, though speech reading is being explored with a promising modification of the phonetic approach. Learning one system does not impair learning the other. The deaf who learn speech reading do acquire a language basis for conceptualization more easily than those dependent more upon sign language. Sign language though has often been the preferred language of the deaf with each other. Since the deaf do often prefer their own company for social reasons this preference is not to be ignored.

SI SE PUEDE
BILINGUAL
LA ESCUELA
1972
¿Y Porque no?

THE BILINGUAL CHILD

BILINGUAL HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Traditionally, the American public school has been known not by its nurture of those who differ from the norm, but by their forced assimilation into some mold. But America is not the only nation with bilingual problems. Switzerland, Canada, Belgium, and Finland, officially recognize other languages. There are educational problems in practically every other nation. (Theodore Anderson & Mildred Boyer)

An excellent study report by Anderson and Boyer (1970), illustrates these problems. Switzerland officially recognizes three languages, German 70%, French 20%, Italian 4%. Individual Swiss citizens take their elementary schooling in their respective mother tongues, and a secondary language is learned at the beginning of the secondary school year. Belgium recognizes French and Dutch. Canada uses French and English. Finland as of 1919, has accepted Finnish and Swedish as its national languages.

The Union of South Africa recognizes English and Afrikaans (a streamlined form of 17th century Dutch), but is still having problems because of the various native African tribal languages.

Mexico has begun intensive research into Bilingual education because of its many indigenous Indian languages.

As a country receiving people from all over the world, America has experienced bilingual schooling as early as 1839, when German was used as a medium for instruction. In 1880 German was used in Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Baltimore, and in Minnesota. Spanish was used in New Mexico in 1884. The State Department of Education in Phoenix, Arizona, printed a bulletin on instruction of bilingual children in 1939.

Newer developments are reported by Anderson and Boyer (1970), in that there was a rebirth of bilingual schooling in Florida with the influx of Cubans. One year later Texas began two programs. By 1967 there were bilingual programs in six different states. President Johnson signed into law the Bilingual Education Act, on January 2, 1968. We believe that a historical background should also give rationales for such programs.

There is an abundance of literature giving examples of the need to upgrade the non-English speaking populace. One example based on a document by a Texas Education Agency, is quoted from Anderson and Boyer (1970): "The per capita median income of 'Anglos' in Texas in 1959 was $4,137; that of the Spanish-surnamed Texans was $2,019. In 1955-56 the average Spanish-surnamed Texan was spending three years in first grade, and dropping out by fifth grade."

But care must be taken in instituting bilingual schooling. Thomas Carter gives two valid points. The Spanish-surnamed teacher applicant deserves special consideration because of two special qualifications he possesses:

1. His example or presence in the school can encourage Spanish-surnamed students; and
2. His ability to understand and give counsel to many Spanish-surnamed students

The second qualification is not always valid. Upper middle class Mexican-Americans may have nothing in common with students from a poor working class home.

Julian Samora (1966) explains two important language factors. The Spanish of New Spain is a conglomeration of the Mayan, Aztec, Pueblo, Omtomies, and other Indian words for which there were no translations in the Spanish from Spain. Added to this is that the Spanish of the Southwest falls into the category of barbarisms (Pochismos), because of the result of a meager vocabulary of English named articles and practices for which there are no Mexican equivalents, and of the almost total lack of tutoring in the Spanish language up to now.

DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE SKILLS

It is the intended goal of many educators that eventually bilingual schools will be available to Mexican-Americans. Then they will be able to learn concepts in their native tongue, and learn English as a second language. However, until that becomes available, the majority of Mexican-Americans will continue to be placed in regular classrooms without the benefit of anyone specially trained to help them overcome their English deficiency.

The regular classroom teacher can do much to meet the needs of bilingual children. The most important thing a teacher can do is to accept the children with their differences, and not to consider them inferior. Many children will come to school speaking English with an accent. This in itself is not necessarily bad, but efforts should be made to help them improve their pronunciation. In trying to help them the attitude of the teacher is very important. It is best to never ridicule or allow others to ridicule their speech. That will only make them self-conscious. The teacher can aim to put them at ease; perhaps allowing them to teach her a few words of Spanish.

If the teacher doesn't speak Spanish, perhaps the fact that she tried, and had difficulty in pronunciation, will give her a common basis to build on. The very idea the teacher had some trouble, will highlight the fact that learning a new language is difficult for everyone. The children might see that improving pronunciation is simply a matter of mechanics and not a measure of intelligence. Under no circumstances should any teacher inflict the "No Spanish" rule. This will produce tension in the children because Spanish speakers will feel that their language is inferior and not acceptable. The type of atmosphere this creates is not conducive to learning English or any other subject.

The following paragraph gives a list of some of the sounds that present the most difficulty for the Spanish speaker learning English.

Consonant Errors

1. Substituting voiceless sounds for the voiced English sounds.

   a. (f) for (v), example: haf for have
   b. (s) for (z), example: sip for zip
   c. (t) for (d), example: bet for bed
   d. (k) for (g), example: coat for goat

2. Confusing (ch) and (sh), example: shurch for church.
3. Substituting d, f, or t, for the voiceless th, example: tin for thin
4. Substituting z, v, d, for the voiced th, example: brover for brother

Vowel Errors

1. Adding the e sound before these initial blends: sm, sp, st, and sc, example: (e)small
2. Using the long e for the short i sound, example: seat for sit.

There are four basic steps that may be used to help children overcome these mistakes in pronunciation.

1. Establish good auditory discrimination. Encourage good listening skills, and emphasize the sound under study until it is well understood.
2. Emphasize the movement of the mouth, tongue, and lips, in making the sounds. Mirrors are very useful for this approach. Children will be able to watch themselves as they imitate the teacher.
3. Provide opportunities for children to orally and visually distinguish between similar sounds. A chart of parallel sets of words which sound exactly alike except for one consonant or vowel sound would be helpful. The children would have to know the meaning of both similar words, example: chair-share, vast-fast
4. Provide for drill that emphasizes reproducing the sounds. At this point in the development of proper speech habits, it is important that the teacher continues to represent a proper model with accurate articulation. These will be reinforcing exercises, and influence the percentage of proficiency the student acquires.

Children enjoy sound play. Drills that provide for oral work can be very creative and exciting for young children. Many types of media may be used, the tape recorder, overhead projector, and flannel board are good examples. Poetry, songs, choral reading, puppets, and dramatic play can be used to strengthen the pupil's ability to produce the English sounds. It is very important that the quality of sould play never be allowed to degenerate into lapses or incorrect repetitions of the sound. Otherwise it will cease to be a valuable activity.

Below are some activities to isolate the sounds of the voiced and voiceless consonants. Children may feel the voiced consonants by putting their hand on their throat and feeling the vibrations of the

vocal cords. In order for children to identify these sounds more readily, every sound is given a name which children can recognize. Posters could be drawn to represent the sounds. Children can act out the sounds they are learning.

1. (s voiceless) is the Sammy Snake sound.
   (z voiced) is the bumble bee sound.
2. (f voiceless) is the spitting cat sound.
   (v voiced) is the airplane sound.
3. (k voiceless) is the coughing crow sound.
   (g voiced) is the baby goo goo sound.
4. (t voiceless is the small drum sound.
   (d voiced) is the baby da da sound.
5. (th voiceless) is the tattle tongue sound.
   (th voiced) is the th in thumb sound.

Activity:

Whenever Thelma wanted to make a silly fun sound she would make the tattle tongue sound. She'd put her tongue between her teeth and blow. Let's see if we can make the same sound Thelma made. (Class imitates the teacher.) Now I am going to say a word, if you hear the tattle tongue sound, clap your hands. (The teacher says thin. The class responds.) Now I'm going to say the word dog. Can you hear the th sound? (Class responds.) The teacher can continue this activity until she feels that they understand the concept.

The following two sounds present the most confusion for the Spanish speaker learning English. The ch and sh are frequently interchanged. The sh is the relaxed sound with air being expelled suddenly. Sh is the quiet time sound. Once children have mastered this sound they are ready to learn the ch sound. Once the sh can be made correctly, ch can be quickly learned by making it just before saying sh. For those students that just can't hear the difference, a pencil placed between the teeth can help. The tongue is placed behind the pencil, and held there as still as possible. Then ch is said. The pencil keeps the tongue from relaxing and saying the sh sound.

Activity:

Children make a circle. One child is chosen to be the sleeping baby. He gets in the center and pretends to be asleep. The teacher turns to the person next to her and says, SH! the baby is sleeping. This person in turn tells his neighbor the baby is sleeping. As long as the sound is made correctly when each one says SH! the baby stays asleep. The teacher should walk around and listen for the substitution errors. When an error is made, the baby starts to cry, and the person who made the error becomes it.

BILINGUAL - TITLE VII PROGRAM

With the idea in mind that prejudice and sterotyping which lead to negative concepts are not inherent in small children, rather they are developed at an early age (James Vanderzander, 1966). It is our belief that the Bilingual school concept is of great importance in teaching cultural awareness to the small child. There are various model programs now under way and many approaches. Basically one model will be used in this report.

This program being the Title VII program at Wilson School District #7 in Phoenix. Demographic data will be dispensed with other than that of the total population of the district, 70% of the student body are of Mexican-American descent. The median number of school years completed is 6.6, as against 8.1 for non-Mexican-American students. (Statistical Report, Bilingual Program, p.7, 1969). As can be seen, the drop out rate was in keeping with a study by Theodore Anderson and Mildred Boyer (1970). Program procedures called for are described in the aforementioned Statistical Reports Bilingual Education Program (1969).

1. Objectives
2. Components
3. Personnel
4. Other cirrucular activities
5. Evaluation

Some of the objectives are:

1. The improvement of English teaching procedures
2. Development of oral skills in Spanish for non-Spanish speaking children, which will include a Reading and Writing readiness in a continuous progress method
3. Teaching of Spanish as a second language to the non-Spanish student
4. Improvement of Spanish skills of the Spanish-speaking child, to foster a positive attitude toward English and Spanish
5. The use of Spanish as a medium in methodology, as needed, where English language deficiencies are found in Spanish-speaking children.

Also of value, it was decided to develop a positive attitude and awareness toward the history and culture of the Southwest, and to establish a closer home-school relationship. There are three major components:

1. An English Oral Language Program
2. A Spanish Oral Language Program
3. A Spanish Language Arts Program

Personnel will increase in numbers with each additional year for the five year Government funded program. It originally was developed to train at least two bilingual teachers, two non-bilingual teachers, and eight bilingual teacher aids. Four of the aids would serve as instructional assistants. The bilingual teachers would be responsible for the development of cognitive, psychomotor, and affective aspects, (e.g., positive attitudes toward usage of the child's home language and culture.) The teacher and aids will establish closer home-school relationships.

Other curricular activities presented consist of:

1. Science - with emphasis on a comparison of Mexico and Arizona
2. Math - concepts taught both in English and Spanish
3. Physical Education
4. Art - reflecting American, Mexican, Negro, and Indian cultures
5. Music - English and Spanish
6. Social Studies - several cultures will be discussed, but some emphasis will be put on the Mexican culture, because of the 70% total school population being Mexican-American.

From a 1971 interview with Mr. E. Carillo, and experience as a teacher in the Title VII program, evaluations are necessary. The following is some general information on the Wilson School Bilingual program. Post-tests given in late 1971 were not valid, since data collected in pre-testing proved largely invalid. Overall, data from the product objectives, instructional components, were supportive of the Bilingual Program. Data supported two specific goals:

1. More competent and proficient speakers in two languages; and
2. Increased educational opportunity.

HEAD START PROGRAM

Programs such as "Head Start" or the "400 word program" are helping to provide a good beginning in school for many non-English speaking children. Children are taught a minimum of 400 basic English words before entry into the first grade. Visual aids are presented in Spanish and English. Health and nutrition are a part of the basic program. Trips are arranged to different parts of the community. For some children this is the first opportunity to have something that belongs exclusively to them, and to share things with children of their own age. Seeing buses, trains, airplanes, may be a new experience for many.

BILINGUALISM - SUCCESS OR FAILURE

Mexican-Americans have long been labelled "culturally deprived." Culturally "different" is more accurate, as their culture in the Southwest dates back to 1598. It is usually the teacher who is culturally "deprived."

According to Johnson and Hernandez (1970), the Spanish-speaking child imagines there is a conflict of loyalties between his home and his English-speaking school. Both represent opposite poles of authority in his life. He sees himself as different from his Anglo friends. No child wants to be different, he wants to belong to his own society. Juanito's self-concept can be improved by encouraging him to share his first language, Spanish, with his classmates.

If Bilingual-Bicultural education is to succeed, educators must learn to understand the attitudes of the child and his family toward the teacher, and school in general. Teacher training programs for Bilingual education requires money, competent instructors, materials, and interested participants. Some funds are available through the Federal Office of Education. In-service training is provided in a few districts. The most important ingredient is an interested and enthusiastic teacher who really wants to work with Bilingual and Bicultural children.

THE BILINGUAL INDIAN CHILD

In the United States there are six major language groups among the Indian tribes. Within each of these six groups there are many, many different dialects. Many tribes within a group are unable to understand each other within their language group, even though their languages are related.

Along with the many different languages spoken among the Indian peoples of the U.S., each tribe has its own distinct culture. Because of the differences in language and culture, each tribe must be taught English by an approach which is best for them, and not by a method which has worked for a different tribe. For example, what works for the Navaho may be a failure among the Pima.

However, there are some things to watch out for in teaching English as a second language to any group. One of these being our attitude toward the non-English speaking person. According to the participants of the workshop held at Alamosa, Colorado in 1964 (Potts), there is a widespread notion that many Mexican-Americans and American-Indians know English, but pretend otherwise. There are occasional instances of this, but this is generally not true. It does, however, give the English-speaking person a justification to himself for feelings of irritation, and a lack of trying to establish good relationships between himself and the non-English speaking person, by placing the blame on the other person.

Also, as an English-speaking people we tend to feel that the louder we speak, the better the other person should understand. For example, if we say something and the person to whom we are speaking doesn't understand, we repeat the words using a louder voice. The next thing we know we are yelling. If this is a teacher trying to communicate with a non-English speaking child, the teacher becomes frustrated, and thus concludes that the child is stupid. The child wonders what he has done to make the teacher angry, or he feels that he has missed something of importance. The child will lapse back into his own language, even though he may understand some English, because this gives him a feeling of security.

Because the use of English is so important to success in the dominant culture, it is felt by many that the failure to learn English by anyone living in the U.S. is a sign of hostility toward our culture, and we as members of the dominant culture. This contributes to feelings of mistrust, dislike, and overt disapproval between the different groups. In reality, failure to learn English may be caused by many other things, such as isolation on reservations, or concentration of Indians in certain areas of cities. Thus there is no need to learn English, or anyplace to use it if they do learn it.

According to Roessel, any teacher who intends to teach a foreign language in a U.S. classroom, is required by law to have special preparation in the teaching of that language. The only exception is, if that foreign language happens to be English. There is not a single requirement in any of the fifty states for a person who intends to teach English as a second language (Roessel).

It is felt that the most effective teaching techniques and materials are the ones based on contrasting the student's native language with English. The student needs to identify the differences in sound, word order, vocabulary, and cultural outlook. (For comparison of English with Spanish, Navaho, and Papago, write to Division of Indian Education, Arizona State Dept. of Public Instruction, State House, Phoenix, Arizona, for free materials.) (Potts 1964)

In learning a new language there will be sounds not found in the native language. Before a student can produce these sounds, he must be able to hear and distinguish them. (Potts, 1964).

Each language has its own distinct system of rhythm and stress. For this reason a teacher of bilingual students when speaking, should:

1. Use single forms - with controlled vocabulary
2. Speak distinctly
3. Do not distort words
4. Speak naturally, yet slowly
5. Repeat and repeat words used
6. Use same word in many connections
7. Vary cadence

(Roessel, p. 96)

In teaching English, it should be remembered that there is a close relationship between the rise and fall of the voice and meaning. When a person learning a new language fails to grasp the intonation of this language, he speaks it with a bad accent, and is hard to understand, even though his individual sounds are exact. (Potts 1964).

At the Rough Rock Demonstration School, the teaching process is designed to let the children do the talking by means of pretend, real situations, games, creative drama, storytelling, and auditorium presentations. Translation is discouraged because it tends to lead the learner to think that the rules of his native language apply to English, which is not so. (Hoffman, 1968). At this same school, no student is asked to perform individually unless the teacher believes he will succeed. This is in accordance with the Navaho style of learning. The Navaho doesn't use the trial and error method in learning, but rather observes until he feels sure he can perform correctly the task at hand. (Hoffman, 1968).

Above all let's remember that a person's most personal possessions are his language and his culture. When we attack these, most people feel that we are attacking them as a person. In a way this is true. We can change our dress, auto, or even our home, and remain the same person. If we change even one part of our culture or language, we become a different person from what we were. This being the case, how can we as teachers expect to reject the language or culture of our students, and expect them to accept ours, or even try to learn anything from us as a teacher.

THE MIGRANT WORKER

Vidal Rivera tells us that seventy to seventy-five percent of the migrant labor force are Americans of Mexican descent. These workers are mostly in our Southwestern states. Most rights guaranteed other labor forces are denied the "Forgotten Ones." The right to minimum wage, collective bargaining, and unemployment insurance, are only for non-nomadic workers.

THE MIGRANT CHILD

The Office of Education defines the migrant child as the child of a migratory agriculture worker who, within the past year, has moved from one school district to another, so that his parents may obtain work in agriculture or related food processing activities. Public Law 90-247 amended the definition to include migrant children whose parents have established a permanent residency within the past five years.

In educating migratory bilingual children, we have the same difficulties of language and socio-economic status which we have for low income Spanish-speaking children in general. In addition we have the handicaps which are the result of their migratory status.

Probably the most difficult problem in the education of migrant children is establishing a school curriculum which is adapted to their needs. A program which carries meaning and relevance for these children. One which allows each child to progress at his own pace at his own level. One which takes into account the special problems of children on the move, and one which does all this without neglecting the children who are not migratory.

The children of these nomadic workers come to school with a general discouragement and a low morale common to the migrant families. They are often sick and/or undernourished. A child preoccupied with these problems is handicapped in learning. They feel a cultural difference and translate this difference into a sign of inferiority. Most have traveled in many states and know the names of none. They have no ties or sense of belonging to their country, their town, their school, or class. They have no permanent dwelling, and saddest of all, no close or lasting friendships. These children come to school with the one basic need recognized in all children. The need to know someone cares.

THE RECORD TRANSFER SYSTEM

Several years ago the one problem facing all children of migrant families was the lack of a continuing personal record. This problem has now been alleviated. The Record Transfer System, incorporated in many districts, allows a teacher to receive critical data from a central bank in Little Rock, Arkansas, within four hours of the pupil entering her class. A student's birth date, birthplace, sex, current reading and math levels, and history of chronic or critical illness, are all teletyped to the teacher within four hours. A full record is then mailed within twenty-four hours. This allows the teacher to continue with the child's education with little interruption.

As David Ballesteros tells us, along with so many educators who have said for years, that we must change our school programs to meet the needs of the students, instead of trying to compensate the students for failure to meet the needs of the school.

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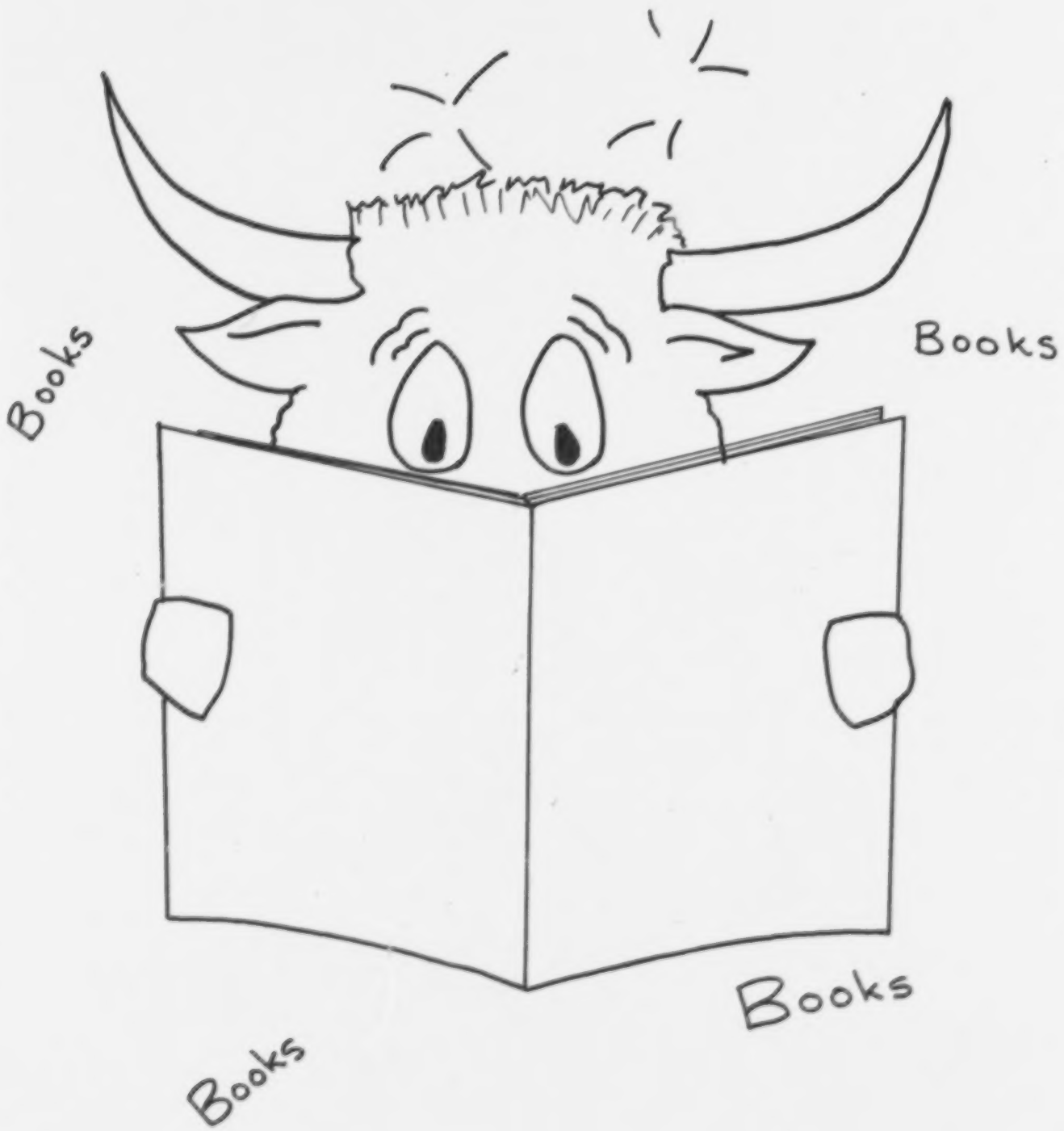

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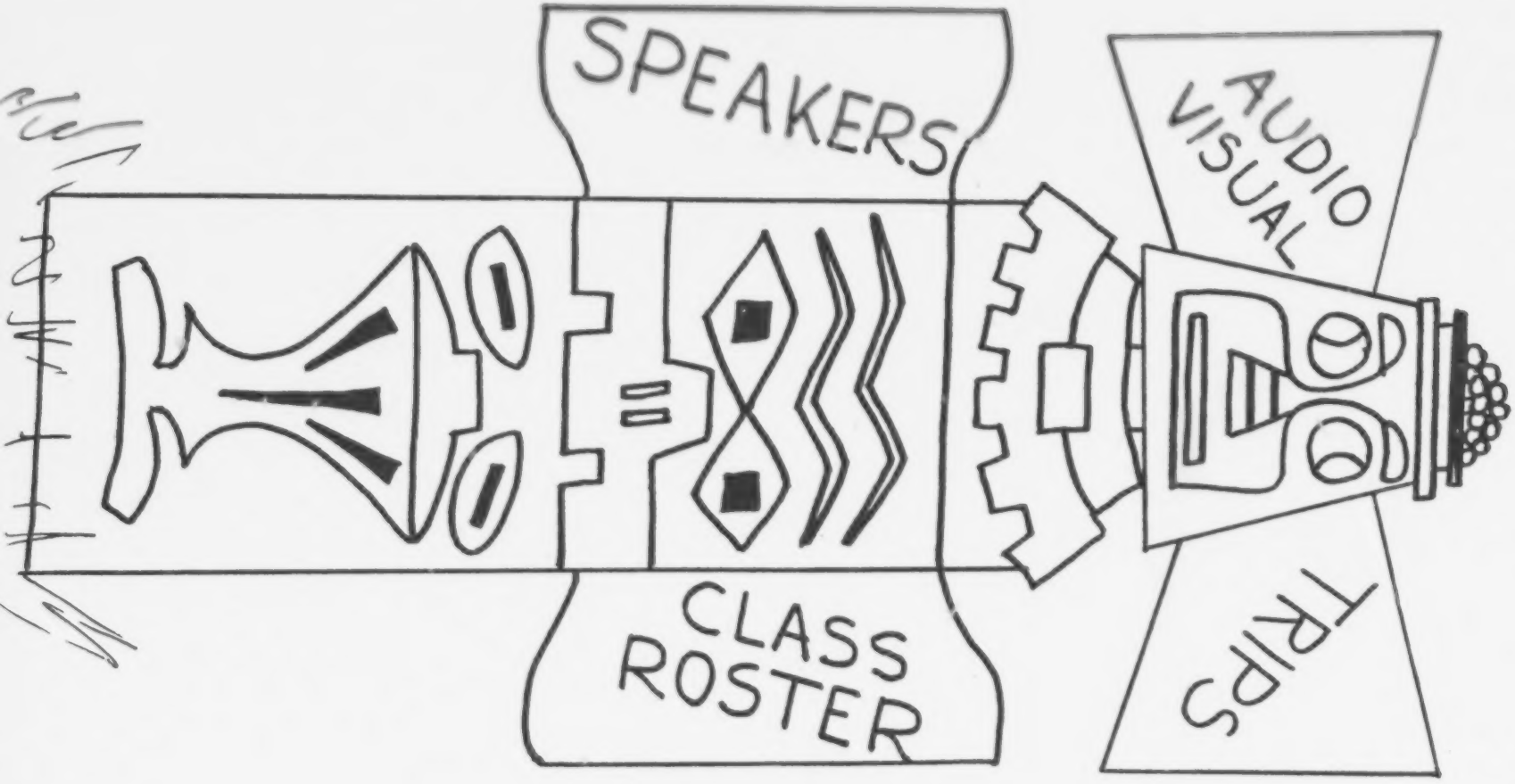
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AUDIO VISUAL
CLASS ROSTER
TRIPS

SPEAKERS

DISADVANTAGED CHILD

Jack Frew

Principal of Ann Ott School, 1801 So. 12th Street
Phoenix Elementary School District #1

MEXICAN AMERICAN CHILD

Louis Rodriquez

Grant School, Phoenix Elementary School District #1
Phoenix, Arizona

INDIAN EDUCATION

John Sullivan

Director of E.P.D.A.
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MENTAL RETARDATION

Mrs. R. Sullivan

Faculty Associate, Special Education Department
Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona

MENTAL RETARDATION

Dr. Bruce Balow

Bureau for the Handicapped
Office of Education
Washington, D. C.

MENTAL RETARDATION

Mrs. V. McDonald

Teaching Principal, McKinley School
Phoenix Elementary School District #1

MENTAL RETARDATION

Standford Kalwara

Director of Study Programs
Phoenix Union High School District

EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED

Susan King

Professor of Special Education
Arizona State University

MENTAL HEALTH

Dr. Barbara Levy

Division of Mental Health
Department of State Health
State Office Building
Phoenix, Arizona

EMOTIONALLY DISTURBED

Galen Clevenger

Jane Wayland Child Center
Phoenix, Arizona

LEARNING DISABILITIES

Dorothy Tuch

Resource Teacher
Phoenix #1 District

LEARNING DISABILITIES - PARENTS' PANEL

Doris Adams

Vice President of AACLD
Tempe Branch

Jean LaBouff

First Vice President of State AACLD

AUDITORY HANDICAPS

Rosalie Schlegelmilch

Director of Speech Department
Grand Avenue School
Phoenix, Arizona

BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION

Dr. A. Silberman

Director of S.P.A.R.K.
Tempe Elementary School District

VISUALLY HANDICAPPED

Doris Vogel

Teacher
Scottsdale School District

DEPRIVED CHILDREN

Dr. Morrison Warren

Director of I.D. Payne Laboratory
College of Education
Arizona State University
Tempe , Arizona

SPEECH PROBLEMS (TELELECTURE)

Dr. Anne Carrol

Coordinator of Speech Education
University of Denver
Denver, Colorado

SPEECH PROBLEMS

Dr. Don Mowrer

Speech Clinician
Arizona State University
Tempe, Arizona

SPECIAL EDUCATION

Joe Paganella

Director of State Department of Special Education

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY

Dr. John Nelson

Assistant Professor of Special Education
Arizona State University
Tempe, Arizona

DRUGS AND YOUTH

Dr. Robert Lindberg

Phoenix Union High School District
Director of Pupil Personnel Services

FILM BIBIIOGRAPHY

Disadvantaged and Bilingual

HOME OF THE BRAVE, 3 min., Color; Pyramid Films: Uses kinestasis (animation of still photos) to show history of the American Indian from pre-Spanish times to today.

MEXICAN AMERICAN CULTURE-ITS HERITAGE, 18 min., Color; Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona; Traces the history of Mexico and its relationship with the United States and demonstrates the influences of various cultures on Mexico and the United States.

THE MEXICAN AMERICAN-HERITAGE AND DESTINY, 29 min., Color; Story of the Mexican American, his heritage, and the many traditions of which he can be proud.

PROMISES TO KEEP, 1969, 28 min., B & W; A.E.A., T.E.P.S., N.E.A.: Equalization of education for all and the failures of the innercity to recognize students as individuals.

TENSE IMPERFECT, 12 min., B & W; ASU: Negative attitude of young idealistic teachers in a low income situation.

INDIAN EDUCATION, DEMONSTRATION IN EDUCATION, TUBA CITY, 1968, 22 min., Color; Northern Arizona Supplementary Education, Box 5618, NAU, Flagstaff, Arizona: Filmed in Tuba City showing teaching aids and techniques and discussing ways of bringing home and school together.

HARVEST OF SHAME, 1963, 54 min., B & W; ASU: Edward R. Murrow narrates the plight of migrant workers who harvest America's crops along the East coast.

BLACK ON WHITE, 1970, 24 min., Color; Concept Films, 1155 15th Street, M. W., Washington, D.C., 20005: Explores a white surburban community with six black high school seniors from the ghetto.

IS IT ALWAYS RIGHT TO BE RIGHT, 1970-71, 8 min., Color; ASU: A witty and fast moving film narrated by Orson Welles. Focuses on the generation gap, war, poverty, and race. Perspective on today's world without alienating any group.

Mental Retardation

INTRODUCTION TO THE MENTALLY RETARDED, 24 min., B & W, Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona: Clinical in nature and should be a basic film in any class on the retarded child.

REPORT ON DOWNS' SYNDROME, 1963, 20 min., Color; ASU: Outlines characteristics and treatment of the mongoloid child. Explains genetic factors.

BECKY, 15 min., Color; Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona: Shows how a family makes a special plan for today and for Becky's future.

LONG CHILDHOOD OF TIMMY, 1969, 52 min., B & W; Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona: Portrays emotional trauma for all concerned when a mongoloid child is taken from the family and sent to a special training school.

JULIA, 1968, 10 min., Color; ASU: Julia is thought to be mentally retarded, but test results show that she is deaf.

THREE YEARS LATER, 1966, 38 min., B & W: ASU: A follow-up study of six mentally retarded pre-school boys. Age range is 5-7 years. Film demonstrates growth three years later during a summer program.

A PLACE AMONG US, 27 min., Color; NBC Educational Enterprises 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York: A look at two innovative projects in the field of mental retardation in operation at Mansfield Training School. One project consists of research into the nature of retardation and the second project uses intensive vocational training and supportive peer group situations.

SELLING ONE GUY NAMED LARRY, 1965, 17 min., B & W; Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona: Compares the mentally retarded with the person of average intellegence. Good discussion of successful employment for the mentally retarded.

A WORLD OF THE RIGHT SIZE, 20 min., Color; ASU: A good overview of mental retardation. Explains what mental retardation is, how it is measured, the causes, and things that can and should be done for the mentally retarded.

Emotionally Disturbed and Learning Disabilities

WHO CARES ABOUT JAMIE, 16 min., B & W; ASU: Shows a first grade boy and his problems at school and on the way home. Stresses how the home can help overcome a child's emotional problems.

SOCIAL WORKER, 18 min., Color; Kingscreen Productions, 320 Aurora Avenue, Seattle, Washington: Animated presentation of the frustrations of Joshua, a bird, as he tries to cope with his environment.

SILENT SNOW, SECRET SNOW, 1966, 17 min., Color; ASU: Gene Kenny's lyrical adaptation of Conrad Aiken's haunting short story of a young boy gradually being drawn into a fantasyland of schizophrenia.

I JUST DON'T DIG HIM, 1969-70, 11 min., Color; A new Mental Health Board Film: Depicts interpersonal relationship between a 14-year old boy and his father.

SANTA MONICA PROJECT, 30 min., Color; Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona: Shows the engineered classroom of structure, task and reward as a possible solution for the educationally handicapped.

CAN I COME BACK TOMORROW, 50 min., Color; Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona: Shows classroom management and teaching techniques with educationally handicapped students in one of the classrooms in the Learning and Behavior Problems Project at California State College in Los Angeles, California.

WHY BILLY COULDN'T LEARN, 1966, 30 min., Color; California Association for Neurologically Handicapped Children, Color Reproduction Company, Santa Monica Blvd., Hollywood, California: Excellent film explaining problems of neurologically disturbed children. Shows best ways of teaching, testing, and learning.

I'M NOT TOO FAMOUS AT IT, 1969, 28 min., B & W; ASU: Shows what is being done through remedial work to help children with learning disabilities to overcome them in order to learn.

UP IS DOWN, 1970, 6 min., Color; ASU: Shows some of the central issues of our times; tolerance, conformity, conflicts between man and society, and between one generation and another.

VISUAL PERCEPTION AND THE FAILURE TO LEARN, 1966, 20 min., B & W: Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona: Many children in nursery school, kindergarden, and primary grades show difficulties in learning and in adjustment or in both. The film illustrates one of the frequently unrecognized causes--a disability in visual perception.

Physically Handicapped

BLINDNESS IS, 1967, 30 min., B & W; Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Center, Phoenix, Arizona: The positive aspect of blindness is shown.

I HAVE AN EGG, 1966, 15 min., B & W: McGraw-Hill: The blind children in this film have a difficult task--using only tactile senses, to define an egg. The surfaces and shape of an egg is explored. The children spell out their names in braille.

A DAY WITH DEBBIE, 18 min., Color; University of Arizona, Tucson: Shows a day in the life of Debbie, a deaf and blind student at Washington State Institution for the Deaf and Blind.

KEVIN, 16 min., ASU: Explores the adjustments to blindness made by one intellegent and appealing boy; demonstrates some important character values; points out that through courage and determination, handicaps can be overcome and life can be made worthwhile. Helps one appreciate more the gift of sight.

SILENT AND MUFFLED WORLD, 1966, 28 min., Color; ASU: Background of history and medical reasearch and progress for the hard of hearing and the deaf. An actual operation is presented.

WE CAN GROW, 197 , 13 min., Color; Arizona Department of Education, Instructional Materials Center, Phoenix, Arizona: The struggle of handicapped children--those who are crippled, blind, or deaf--to learn and grow.

THURSDAY'S CHILDREN, 22 min., B & W: ASU: A skillful teacher works with a group of deaf children by artificially reproducing sounds after first learning to lip read.

LEO BEUERMAN, 1969-70, 13 min., Color; ASU: Portrays a day in the life of a physically handicapped man.

Gifted

WHY MAN CREATES, 1969, 25 min., Color; ASU: An expertly designed film that combines humor, satire, irony, and serious questions about the well-springs of the creative person.

RAFE, 1967, 20 min., Color; Jarvis Couillard Associates, A.E.A., 2102 W. Indian School Road: Rafe is a gifted child shown in three environments; home, school, and neighborhood. The school discovers his giftedness and nurtures it.

General

REACHING OUT--THE LIBRARY AND THE EXCEPTIONAL CHILD, 1966, 24 min., Color; Connecticut Films, Westport, Conn.: Shows in spontaneous sequences how children with various handicaps respond to books and other materials. Shows the effective use of books with the exceptional child.

SCHOOLS WITHOUT FAILURE, 1970, 45 min., Color; SWF Productions, 2140 W. Olympic Blvd., Suite 510, Los Angeles, Calif.: A resource film for administrators, teachers, students, and parents who are interested in developing their own school without failure. It portrays three basic schools without failure concepts.

TRIPS

The Arizona Training Program At Coolidge, P. O. Box 1466, Arizona is a state operated home for retarded children.

The Arizona Crippled Children's Hospital, (Perry Institute), 3146 E. Windsor is a private school and workshop for retarded children.

The Arizona Girls School, North Black Canyon Road, State Girls Detention Home.

The Arizona State Hospital (Nueva Vista) , 2500 E. Van Buren is a state institution and does have a section for the emotionally disturbed child. They use the Hewitt Engineered Classroom method of teaching.

The Arizona Pre-school For Retarded Children, 6306 N. 7th Street, is a privately funded program for retarded children.

Barrows Neurological Institute, 360 W. Thomas Rd., is a diagnostic and evaluative service.

Camp Echo, located just outside of Tucson, is an incorporated summer camp for handicapped children.

Child Evaluation Center, 1825 E. Roosevelt, is where they evaluate mentally retarded children by a team of professionals. Evaluations, prognosis, and recommendations are given.

Devereaux Foundation And Day School, 6404 E. Sweetwater, Scottsdale, is a private school for the emotionally disturbed child.

Dysart School, Route 1, Box 410, Peoria, has a program for migrant students. One of the terminals of the Migrant Transfer System is located here.

The Foundation For The Blind Children, 206 S. Hinton Ave., Scottsdale, is a non-profit organization for supplying blind students with materials.

Gompers Memorial Rehabilitation Center, 1003 E. McDowell, is a center for speech and hearing handicapped, learning disabilities, and brain injured.

Goodwill Industries Of Arizona,Division of Vocational Rehabilitation, 417 N. 17th St., is a testing center and training workshop for retarded youths.

Indian Hills Day School, 2110 E. Lincoln Drive, is a school for emotionally disturbed, learning disabilities, and minimal brain injured children.

Irving Elementary School, 155 N. Center, Mesa, is a school program for socially maladjusted children.

Jane Wayland Child Guidance Center, 1937 W. Jefferson, is a school for the emotionally disturbed child.

Lucky 13, 8820 E. Cactus Road, Scottsdale, provides educational services for children with learning disabilities.

Maricopa County Detention Home,3125 W. Durango, is a temporary housing for juveniles. There are limited programs due to the short duration of a child's stay.

McKinley School, 512 E. Pierce, has different activities for learning disabled children.

Mesa Association For Retarded Children (MARC), 525 S. Wilbur St., Mesa, provides educational program for retarded children aging from 3 to 8 years.

New Way School, 300 N. Miller Rd., Scottsdale, provides educational services for learning disabilities and minimal cerebral dysfunction.

Patterdall, 1820 W. Northern Ave., is a home for socially maladjusted and emotionally disturbed teenage girls.

Phoenix Day School For The Deaf, 1935 W. Hayward, is a program for deaf children.

Roosevelt School District, various locations, uses some of their schools for a program similar to Head-start.

Tempe Parks And Recreation, McClintock High, Tempe, had a program for the mentally retarded.

Valley Of The Sun School, 3115 W. McDowell, is a non-profit residential home for retarded children.

CLASS ROSTER
1972 WORKSHOP
SP 594

INTEREST AREA

BIL	Bilingual	EMH	Educable Mentally Handicapped
DIS	Disadvantaged	GIF	Gifted
DHH	Deaf and Hard of Hearing	LD	Learning Disabilities
EH	Emotionally Handicapped	SL	Slow Learner
TMH	Trainable Mentally Handicapped		

NAME ADDRESS PHONE	SCHOOL DISTRICT	GRADE	INTEREST AREAS (Position)	ENABLING COMMITTEE (Position)
Aidukas, Margaret M.	_____	_____	BIL (Sec.)	Audio-Visual (Assistant Secretary)
Anderson, Beverly 1202 E. Cambridge Phoenix (279-5223)	Phoenix #1	1	SL	Speakers
Anderson, Bob 7267 W. College Dr. Phoenix (846-2791)	Carl Hayden P.U.H.S.	Department Chairman	EMH (Chair.)	Syllabus (Chair.)
Archer, Karen 2745 W. Colter #C Phoenix (242-4638)	Washington	3	GIF	Social
Barth, Mary 4138 W. Montgomery Way Phoenix (272-9963)	Cartwright	3	SL	Social
Beiling, Ollie 1839 E. Rose Lane	Deer Valley	Sp. Ed.	EMH	Trips
Bindy, Ruth N. Palo Verde E. #306 Perm. 2009 W. 6th St. Hastings, Nebraska (463-2689)	Hastings, Nebraska	Reading 2-6	LD	Audio-Visual
Bingham, Patricia D. 4143 E. Bluefield Phoenix (922-0922)	Isaac #5	2	GIF (Syl. Chair.)	Social
Blake, Judith 3401 W. Willetta Phoenix (272-4502)	Cartwright	Kinder-garden	EMH	Display
Bozarth, Christine 5604 S. Clambake Bay Ct. Tempe	Mesa	Aide 2-3	EH (Chair.)	Speakers (Sec.)
Bradley, Jean 1234 E. Bethany Home Rd. Phoenix (248-8947)	Glendale	Special Education 9-11	DIS	Bibliography
Brown, Kathryn E. 3017 W. Gail Phoenix (942-4176)	Washington	5	EH (Display)	Speakers
Brown, Lois A. 1421 Verlea Dr. Tempe (968-0215)	Creighton	4	LD	Audio-Visual

Brown, Stan C. 8502 E. Rose Lane Phx. (949-5188)	Scotts-dale	Sci. 7	LD (Trea.)	Social (Trea.)
Cable, Jan 3326 N. 85th Pl. Phx. (946-8962)	Scotts-dale	Home Ec.	EH (Sec.)	Trips (Chair.)
Crawford, Patricia 1822 E. Windsor #57 Phx.	Wilson 7	7 & 8 Sp. Ed.	EH (Co-Chair.)	Trips (Photographer)
D'Cunha, Jane E. 2610 E. Sylvia Phx. (992-9770)	Madison	LD	LD (Chair.)	Social (Sec.)
Deering, Jane 1140 E. Geneva Dr. Tempe (966-9336)	Scotts-dale	Kinder-garden	LD (Bib.)	Library
Dildine, Wanda L. Holiday Inn 472 (968-3451) Perm. Box 4554, Yuma	Yuma	6	EH	Trips
Doyle, Bernadine K. 2313 N. 37th St. Phx. (273-0655)	Washing-ton	EMR	EMH	Social
Faught, Lauretta 2547 E. Monroe Phx.		5 & 6	BIL (Bibl.)	Syllabus (Proof Dir.)
Felding, Richard J. 8519 E. Mariposa Dr. Scottsdale (947-5323)			EH	Library (Chair.)
Fleming, Robye J. 1524 W. Yuma St. Phx. (258-1990)	Phoenix Elem.	5 & 6	LD (Syl. Rep.)	Library
Greene, Jolene E. 6712 N. 21 St. Phx. (277-6444)	Washing-ton	3	EH (Bib.)	Speakers
Groves, Suzanne 4411 N. 40th St. #53 Phx. (956-7894)	Carl Hayden P.U.H.S.		EMH (Syl. Rep.)	Bibliography
Hamrick, Frances P. 6111 Calle del Paisano Scotts. (945-7762)	Scotts-dale	12 HR	GIF (Chair.)	Trips (Sec.)
Hewett, Barbara 1412 Hall St. Tempe 967-2265 (Perm) Prescott	Dexter Prescott	2	DIS (Sec.)	Trips
Howard, Grace Anne 699 W. Linda Lane Chandler (963-5027)	WAFB Elem.	Sp. Reading	EH (Syl. Rep.)	Audio-visual
Hulse, Madelyn Box 333 Cave Creek (488-3174)		4-6	BIL (Syl. Rep.)	Speakers
Jackson, Ann Yvonne 139 E. Piedmont Rd. Phx. (268-0414)	Roosevelt		EH	Bibliography
James, Rosemary 4415 S. Butte Ave. Tempe (839-0304)	Tempe Elem.	3	GIF (Biblio. Rep.)	Bibliography (Syl. Rep.)

Johnston, Christine 5114 N. 40th St. #205 Phx. (955-6234)	Washing-ton	3	EH	Speaker (Photographer)
Kennedy, Claudia 3938 W. Camelback Rd. Phx. (934-7157)	Cart-wright	Vocal Music Sp. Ed.	EMH	Trips
Kropen, Toni 2033 E. Lahuna Dr. Tempe (838-0327)	Tempe	Kdg.-1	LD	Social
Lauerman, Mary M. 4640 E. Almeria Phx. (275-5270)	Balsz	Sub.	GIF	Display
Lendriet, Norene 3705 W. Luke Phx. (939-1206)	Isaac	TMR	TMH	Audio-visual (Chair.)
Long, Helyne L. 5601 N. 29th Ave. Phx. (242-0036)	Cart-wright	3	GIF	Social (Chair.)
Lucky, Charles C. 1329 W. Sherman Phx. (254-8545)	Phoenix	P.E.	EH	Trips
Mackie, W. Woodard Box 415 Apache Jct. (982-2117)	Apache Jct. Bedell	Sp. Ed.	DHH	Syllabus (Bib. Dir.)
Martin, Patricia 8707 W. Sandalwood Dr. Scotts. (945-5597)	Creigh-ton	1-2 Team	SLD (Sec.)	Speakers
Marva, L. Manuel 115 E. Thunderbird Trail Phx. (267-1236)	Roosevelt	Inter-mediate Level	SLD	Trips
McCray, Lucy S. 125 E. Thunderbird Trail Phx. (276-3270)	Roosevelt	5	DIS (Display)	Speakers
McDaniel, Mary B. 1952 E. Marshall Phx. (266-3322)	Washing-ton	5	EH	Social
McKean, Barbara 1204 E. Malibu Tempe (838-6585)	Tempe	3	LD	Audio-visual (Sec.)
Mers, Leland B. 3447 W. Dailey Phx. (942-3018)	Isaac	6	SL	Audio-visual
Moffett, Illa 1039 S. Mesa Dr. Mesa	Mesa	TMH	EMH	Trips
Morales, Richard D. 1319 E. Orangewood Phx. (944-7959)	Wilson	3 Bil.	BIL (Display)	Speakers (Chair.)
Morrison, Grace E. Box 168FA Tolleson (936-1691)	Cart-wright	2	GIF	Social
Myers, Martha 7922 E. Kimsey Lane Scotts. (947-0621)	Roosevelt	3	EMH	Trips

Nevit, Ann E. 1634 Pebble Beach Tempe (838-2003)	Tempe #3	1	SL (Display)	Display
Olthouse, Sharon 2318 W. DePalma Mesa (969-4425)	Paradise Valley	1	SL (Sec.)	Social (Asst. Treas.)
Roberts, Judith J. 1838 E. South Mt. Ave. Phx. (276-7253)	Roosevelt	4 & 1	EMH (Bib.)	Bibliography
Shields, Kirsten J. Rt 2, Box 444 Tempe (966-3169)	Mesa	6	TMH (Chair.)	Syllabus (Coordinator)
Simpson, Shirley 6809 N. 36th Dr. Phx. (934-1042)	Isaac	4	DIS (Co-Chair.)	Bibliography
Sippel, Joanne 4120 S. LaCorta Dr. Tempe (967-8306)	Denver Dist. 80	3	DIS (Syl. Rep.)	Library
Spanos, Marie 767 E. Montecito Ave. Phx. (279-0638)	_____		LD (Co-Chair.)	Library (Treas.)
Spencer, Pat 1019 E. Lemon #112 Tempe (966-5855)	Phx. Union	Frosh Com. 9	EH	Bibliography
Soloff, Sarah 1806 W. Claremont Phx. (264-2050)	Cart- wright	4	SL	Social
Soto, Beverly Davis 3316 W. State Ave. Phx. (939-1981)	Washing- ton	3	EH	Social
Stack, Mary T. 4732 E. Cambridge Phx. (959-2418)	_____		TMH	Syllabus (Editor)
Stephens, Alison Box 371 Black Canyon Stage Phx. (465-7703)	Cave Creek	4 & 5	GIF	Social
Sutphin, Barbara 31 W. 2nd #14 Mesa (834-8107)	Mesa	3	BIL	Display
Tavlarides, Catherine 333 E. Virginia Ave. Phx. (252-1269)	Phx. Elem.	4	LD (Biblio.)	Library
Travis, Mary 1008 Mariana #2 Perm. Bylas, AZ	Parochial WELS	4 & 5	DIS (Chair.)	Display
Warren, Ola Mae 691 W. Erie Chandler (963-4677)	Hartford	1	SL	Speakers
Williams, Margaret 4528 W. Cavalier Glendale (939-4242)	Glendale Union	Sp. Ed. 9-12	DIS (Biblio.)	Bibliography (Chair.)
Wilson, Kay 2626 S. Elm Tempe (967-5146)	Tempe #3	1	EH	Library (Sec.)